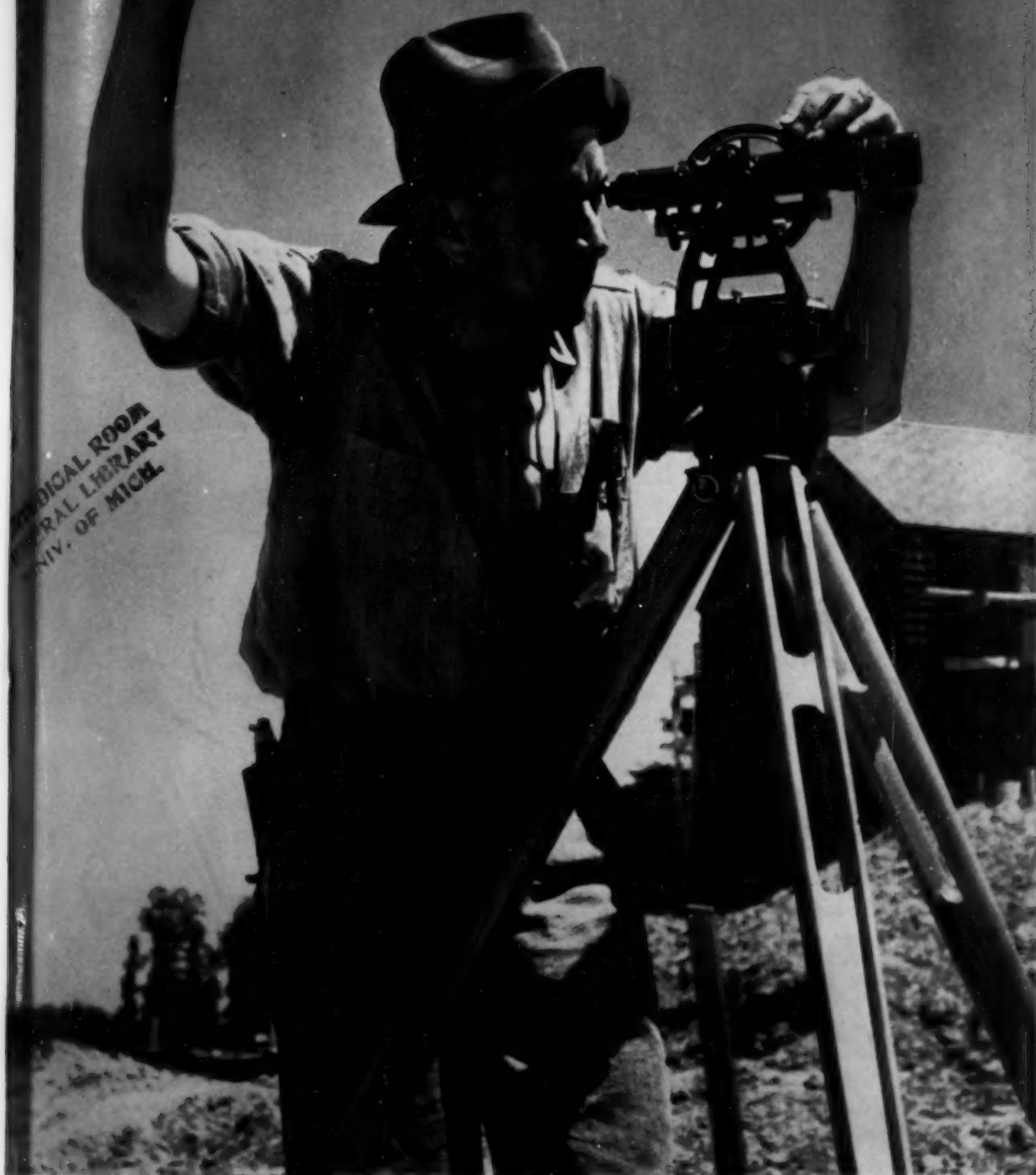


# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



Surveying for a Low-Cost-Housing Project

*in this issue . . .* Government Price Control in First World War •  
Effect of Rising Costs on Quality of Wearing  
Apparel • Cooperation in Building Homes •  
Wartime Labor in China

FEBRUARY 1941

Vol. 52 • No. 2

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# MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

\*\*\*\*\* + HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR + \*\*\*\*\*

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# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR FEBRUARY 1941

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## GOVERNMENT PRICE CONTROL IN THE FIRST WORLD WAR

By STELLA STEWART, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*<sup>1</sup>

### *Summary*

WHEN the United States declared war against Germany in April 1917 prices of both industrial and consumer goods had already advanced, and wholesale prices averaged about 50 percent above the 1914 pre-war level.

Chief among the influences which contributed to these price increases was the extraordinary demand for both raw materials and finished goods from European countries which had already been at war for more than 2 years. Then, too, many imported materials were becoming increasingly difficult to obtain because of shipping difficulties and the discontinuance of trade with some of the belligerent nations. These circumstances, together with the further demands made upon the economy when the United States began active preparations for increased defense, in 1916, further stimulated the upward price trend.

As competition increased in the bidding for supplies by the United States Government and by the Allies, confusion and conflict arose. Industrial output could not keep up with the demand. Uncontrolled profits of unscrupulous traders presented an additional problem.

By the summer of 1917, it had become apparent that the United States Government must institute some type of price regulation to protect the interests of the defense program and of the American public. As the year proceeded, a group of agencies was created for this purpose, chief among them the War Industries Board and the Fuel and Food Administrations.

The War Industries Board was organized to insure adequate production and to regulate prices of industrial materials. Although the prices which were fixed by this agency for Government purchases were

<sup>1</sup> The author was a member of the Price Section of the War Industries Board, in charge of maintaining files of prices of controlled commodities, and collaborated with Paul W. Garrett and Isador Lubin in the preparation of War Industries Board Price Bulletin No. 3: Government Control Over Prices.

extended to civilian buying, they had less effect upon the consumer economy than other controls which this Board exercised. The priority which was given to Government orders for supplies of raw materials and fuel and for transportation led to shortages in civilian goods and eventually to price levels which bore heavily upon the consumer.

Price controls had two primary objectives—the stabilization of prices, and the increase of production. It is probable that production speed-up played as important a part in the program of the War Industries Board and, later, of the Price Fixing Committee, as did the effort to buy at a reasonable price. It must be remembered that the purpose of price fixing, as far as this Board was concerned, was directed entirely toward reaching military objectives, and the fixed price, though considered "fair and reasonable" was always high enough to maintain a continuous flow of goods. Little thought was given in the early stages of the price-control program, to the probable effect upon the civilian population during either the war period or the post-war period. In order to protect the consumer against further price advances the United States Food Administration and the Fuel Administration were created in August 1917, after the United States had entered the war.

In contrast to the earlier agencies, the work of the Food Administration had two objectives: (1) The stabilization of prices and the conservation of food for the consuming public, and (2) a concentrated effort to increase the flow of goods to the European Allies. Although the wording of the Food Control Act leads to the conclusion that in forming this legislation the interests of the producer were considered at least as seriously as those of the consumer, in the administration of the law there was a somewhat different emphasis.

The work of the Fuel Administration was concerned with both industrial and domestic consumers, although the needs of industrial consumers were given precedence because of the wide use of coal for production and transportation of war supplies and material.

Each of these three wartime price-control agencies attempted to use production costs as a point of departure in price fixing, with varying degrees of success. Cost records were much less reliable then than now, and it can be readily understood that they were practically nonexistent for the small retailer of food and coal.

There were many kinds of price control—by means of minimum prices, maximum prices, base prices, and maximum profit margins. For wheat a minimum price was fixed by statute. This guaranteed the producer a fair price and so encouraged production. Prices of industrial products were usually fixed at a maximum high enough to insure an adequate output, but there was a ceiling above which they could not go. In some highly diversified industries, such as iron and



steel, "base" prices were fixed and adjustments were made for varying products and different markets. For both food and fuel, profits were regulated and wholesale and retail prices were fixed at stated margins above the cost level.

It must be remembered that the prices fixed by the War Industries Board and later by the Price Fixing Committee were always determined through agreements with the trade. Only the President could enforce such prices, through his power to commandeer or requisition industry.

A thorough study of the methods used by each of these three agencies, the type of organization, their personnel, and the effectiveness of the various controls as they entered their final phases, is well worth consideration at the present time.<sup>2</sup>

The present article presents a rather broad picture of the subject covered, of the principal agencies concerned, and of the major policies adopted. It does not attempt to evaluate the results of the various policies, and because of this necessary brevity it may give the impression that the price control policies of the United States in the first World War moved in a more orderly fashion than was, in fact, the case. Actually there was much experimenting and much uncertainty and even fumbling, at times, as both policies and administrative machinery were gradually evolved.

By the end of 1916 a broad increase in commodity prices was well under way. The general wholesale price level had advanced about 45 percent since the outbreak of the war; the prices of commodities directly affected, such as chemicals, coal, and steel, had risen much more sharply. By the time of our entry into the conflict, therefore, businessmen who normally would have resented governmental interference were inviting some type of price regulation. An increasing familiarity with the effects of these controls as developed in France and England contributed to this attitude. Added weight to this demand for protection from runaway prices came from the dissatisfaction of the general public, caused by the mounting living costs.

### *Legal Sanctions for Price Control*

The statutory powers under which the various regulatory agencies operated were conferred by a number of laws. Thus, by the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916, the President was given mandatory

<sup>2</sup> The following Government publications are recommended to those who have special interest in the work of one or the other of the wartime agencies which exercised price controls. They are available in public libraries or in The National Archives.

U. S. War Industries Board. *American Industry in the War*, by Bernard M. Baruch, Chairman.

U. S. War Industries Board. *Price Bulletin No. 2: History of Prices During the War*, by Wesley C. Mitchell.

U. S. Fuel Administration. *Final report*. (Harry A. Garfield, Fuel Administrator.)

U. S. Food Administration. *Unpublished report*. (Herbert Hoover, Food Administrator.) (Available in The National Archives.)

U. S. War Trade Board. *Report for period, June 15, 1917, to June 30, 1919*. (Vance McCormick, Chairman.)

powers over manufacturing plants already producing supplies needed for war purposes or capable of converting their plants to wartime uses. The act provided that the purchases should be made "at a reasonable price" as determined by the Secretary of War. It also authorized the President "to appoint a Board of Mobilization of industries essential for military preparedness."<sup>3</sup> Later acts (the Naval Appropriation Act of March 4, 1917, and the Deficiency Appropriations Act of June 15, 1917) gave the President additional authority for the purchase of ships and war materials "at a fair and reasonable price," and the Declaration of War, April 6, 1917, authorized him to use all of the resources of the country to bring about a successful conclusion of the war.

The Council of National Defense was created by section 2 of the Army Appropriation Act of 1916 (approved August 29, 1916), "for the coordination of industries and resources for the national security and welfare."

The Interstate Commerce Commission was empowered to regulate and control the car service of interstate carriers by a May 29, 1917, amendment to the Interstate Commerce Act.

The Food Control Act of August 10, 1917, specifically provided for a minimum price of wheat with provisions for price control of other foods through the licensing provisions of the act. The fuel amendment to this act granted definite and exhaustive powers in the control of price and of the distribution of coal and coke.

Authority to exercise preference or priority in transportation for the duration of the war was conferred upon the President by the Preferential Shipments Act, August 10, 1917.

### *Purpose and Program of Emergency Agencies*

One common purpose pervaded the work of all of the emergency organizations created for strengthening our defenses and later for winning the war. This was the coordination of all efforts for speedy, efficient, and unified action.

Programs, however, developed in accordance with the delegated responsibilities of the several agencies. There was inevitably a certain amount of overlapping and confusion. The specific controls exercised within each agency were modified from day to day to meet the emergency needs of that day and were adjusted to the problems as they arose. It was only this flexibility which made possible the quick decisions and vigorous action essential after our entry into the war.

<sup>3</sup> Sec. 120 of the act was written into sec. 9 of the Selective Service Act of September 1940.

## Defense Agencies and Their Relation to Price Control

### WORK OF COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

The Council of National Defense was created by act of Congress, August 29, 1916, as a peacetime organization "for the coordination of industries and resources for the national defense and welfare." It was composed of the Secretaries of War, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. The act provided that there should be an Advisory Commission of seven persons specially qualified to carry out the duties of the Council which were "to supervise and direct investigations and make recommendations to the President and heads of executive departments" covering every phase of preparedness, "which will render possible in time of need the immediate concentration and utilization of the resources of the Nation."

These specified duties indicate the extensive range of the activities of this group. They influenced the choice of personnel and the separate fields covered by the members of the Advisory Commission as indicated below:

Transportation and communications, Daniel Willard, *Chairman*.  
Munitions and manufactures, Howard E. Coffin.  
Supplies, Julius Rosenwald.  
Raw materials, minerals, and metals, Bernard Baruch.  
Engineering and education, Hollis Godfrey.  
Labor, Samuel Gompers.  
Medicine and surgery, Franklin Martin.

The Council and its Advisory Commission were formally organized in October 1916. Their plans were still in a formative stage when the United States broke off diplomatic relations with Germany in February 1917. During February, industry committees were appointed to work with these groups. As the volume of work increased, these were made independent subcommittees. Their duties, as they evolved, were (1) To furnish information regarding industry resources, manufacturing capacity, means of increasing production, and means of converting facilities; (2) to assist in speeding up all of the emergency work for the Government; (3) to negotiate price agreements; and (4) to distribute orders and award contracts.

The Council did not begin to function effectively until March 1917. It soon became a laboratory for determining the needs for adequate defense, and later for offense, and for recommending the best sources and methods for supplying these needs. The powers of the Council were advisory only, but the President and the Departments of War and Navy looked to it for guidance. Its organization became so effective that most of the later wartime agencies stemmed from the three most important committees of the Council, dealing respectively



with munitions and manufactures, supplies, and raw materials, minerals, and metals. From the beginning it was the policy of the Council to have the various Federal agencies, particularly the Army and the Navy, represented upon its committees, together with experts from the war industries.

In this brief discussion, consideration can be given only to major activities as they dealt with purchases of military supplies, with the functioning of supply and demand, with the direct control of prices, and with the indirect effect upon prices, of other controls.

The *General Munitions Board* of the Council, formally organized in March 1917, and first called the Purchasing Commission, was one of the most important agencies operating within the Council of National Defense. It supervised the purchase of raw materials and the location of adequate plant facilities, acted as arbitrator in the distribution of Government contract orders, and attempted to prevent the overlapping and competition bound to arise among the various supply bureaus of the War and Navy Departments and between government and industry. The work of this board led inevitably to the informal control of prices, since it advised as to price levels and methods of determining "fair and just" basic prices for Government purchases. Deliveries, however, were often delayed while price terms were under debate. By May 1917, the board had recognized the necessity for fixing specific prices in emergencies. This was another step toward formal price fixing.

The *Committee on Supplies* of the Council was organized to help coordinate the huge purchases of the Army and Navy. It too, concerned itself with the price problem, obtained specifications, and arrived at informal price agreements. Perhaps its largest contribution in the price field was the abandonment by the Army and Navy, at its suggestion, of the long-established custom of advertising for bids. Under the new procedure the Government went directly to the manufacturers and negotiated contracts for supplies.

The *Committee on Raw Materials, Minerals, and Metals* gave its attention to sources and supplies for those industrial raw materials necessary for the production of war-making machinery. The work of this committee was made more difficult by the heavy drain that had been made upon the resources of the United States by European countries and by the limitation placed upon imports through the decline in shipping facilities.

The chairman of this committee organized the so-called "commodity divisions" which later played an important part in providing information concerning stocks on hand and sources of supply of these materials. These commodity divisions were staffed by men with intimate knowledge of the technical problems peculiar to each industry. Their contacts with the trade often expedited delivery of



materials, and it was through these divisions that the committee itself was often able to place Government orders at favorable prices, sometimes below the general market level.

As the work of these three groups grew, there was bound to be an overlapping in functions, with resulting strains. The growing war demands for materials enhanced the difficulties of their work. Shortages occurred in some strategic materials and seemed imminent in others. As wages rose and labor became scarce, prices went even higher. More serious, however, were the practices which had developed within the trades and which resulted in speculation at various stages between the manufacturer and the ultimate user of the goods, so that the Government experienced increasing difficulty in buying at a reasonable price. "Cost-plus-profits" contracts added to the uncertainty and confusion. Production was delayed; costs were difficult to ascertain. Informal price agreements had been and continued to be made between various purchasing agencies of the Government and industry. In spite of the efforts of the committees of the Council of National Defense, the Government was still confronted with great difficulty in its buying and the public was protesting at the increasing cost of living.

#### WORK OF WAR INDUSTRIES BOARD

On July 12, 1917, President Wilson announced the intention of the Government to fix prices whenever necessary to keep its purchases within reasonable costs. This announcement was followed on July 28 by the organization of the War Industries Board within the Council. The new board took over the duties and in large part the personnel of the Munitions Board and the Committees of Supply and of Raw Materials. This move brought into the foreground the urgency for extended controls and greater coordination between government and industry. Practically every decision of this board affected prices, either directly or indirectly. Although the matter of legal sanctions for price fixing came up again and again, the President, as Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy, had sufficient authority. During the summer and fall of 1917, prices were negotiated for such important basic commodities as yellow pine, cotton, and iron and steel.

By the spring of 1918, the work of the War Industries Board was recognized as of great significance, but the President thought that it should be divorced from the Council of National Defense and its functions modified. Therefore, in March, it was established as a separate agency, with Mr. Bernard Baruch as its chairman.

Both the President and Mr. Baruch felt that the group which would be held responsible for price control should be separate and apart from the committees responsible for the assembling of facts to be used as the basis for price discussions. Therefore, the *Price*

*Fixing Committee* was established as an independent agency, responsible to the President only. Its membership was made up of representatives of various Federal agencies and of the Army and Navy. No members of the committee had any personal or financial interest in the results of the committee's work. The chairman of the War Industries Board acted as chairman ex-officio. The committee revised earlier policies and initiated new controls, acting upon each commodity independently of every other. Although the reorganized board and the Price Fixing Committee followed in general the policies of the earlier board, the new War Industries Board had been given more authority by the President and its more effective program benefited from the long period of trial and error which had preceded its organization.

The Price Fixing Committee acted only upon the request of a war agency made through the committees of the War Industries Board. In the main, it followed the policy of establishing basic prices on essential industrial materials. These were maximum prices. In practice, however, they usually became the minimum or standard price as well. Such revisions as were made in prices earlier agreed upon tended slightly upward as costs continued to advance. Fixed prices were applicable alike to Government purchases, civilian purchases, and purchases of the Allies. In every case where definite prices were fixed for these commodities, full hearing was given both to the Government and to industry. The findings of the committee were presented to the President who, himself, ratified these findings and announced the results.

By the summer and early fall of 1918, price control had been extended to every one of the major commodity groups, including raw wool, cotton yarns and finished goods, hides and skins, iron and steel and their products, tin, copper, aluminum, lumber, and a wide variety of building materials. In fact, all strategic war materials were the subject either of informal price agreements or of formal Government price regulation.

Even before the entry of the United States into the war, it became evident that some method must be developed for controlling and regulating the placing of Government orders in relation to the needs of the various Government agencies and the transportation of fuel and raw materials to plants manufacturing for military needs.

This situation was met by the establishment of three important bodies:

*The Clearance Committee* was organized originally as a separate committee of the Munitions Board of the Council of National Defense, but functioned at its best as a group of sectional committees of the commodity divisions of the War Industries Board. To these committees were submitted requests for the clearance of orders for

immediate requirements to be placed by the various Government agencies. The Clearance Committee served chiefly as an agency to prevent congestion of orders and to assure their more equitable distribution among the various industries.

*The Requirements Division* was organized to study requirements of the Government and of the Allied Purchasing Commission far in advance of current needs. This division reviewed these requirement schedules with great care, related them to each other and to the program as a whole, and then forwarded them to the appropriate commodity division for recommendations as to the best way of fitting these requirements into the full program. This work was slow to develop and it was not until the latter stages of the war that the division was fully informed on military requirements and was functioning smoothly.

The allocation of orders began in May 1917, with the creation of the *Priorities Committee* within the Munitions Board. The order of preference became an outstanding issue with shortages in many raw materials and with plants receiving more orders from Government agencies than they could possibly fill. Priorities stood out as of prime importance. The work of this committee grew in significance until the President himself, using his emergency powers, gave authority to the priority rulings. The importance of this agency is also evidenced by its evolution from a committee in the original Munitions Board to a division under the reorganized board, and finally to the status of a board in its own right. Through the priority system were resolved the complications brought about by overlapping of orders and the struggle for favor which was intense among the industries. No more powerful controls were exercised by any agency of the Government than by this committee.

Upon becoming the Priorities Division in the reorganized War Industries Board, it classified and rated all orders for war goods. It issued circulars announcing these ratings, and producers were compelled to observe the rulings. Ratings were handled in two ways—first, by the publication of automatic ratings for such industries as iron and steel, which supplied so large a part of the war needs, and second by the issuance of priority certificates to groups placing orders. Between September 1917 and the end of the war, 191,966 priorities certificates were issued.

In April 1918, a resolution was adopted by this agency—now the Priorities Board—establishing a preference list of classes of industries "whose operation as a war measure is of exceptional importance." No distinction was to be made among the industries listed or the plants engaged in the manufacture of goods on the preference list. These lists were to be used as a guide by all agencies in the production of



orders or supplying fuel, raw materials, and electric energy to the industries, as well as to the transportation of fuel, raw materials, and finished products.

A corollary of the announcement of the preference list was the diversion, to the manufacture of goods on this list, of many factories engaged in the manufacture of goods for civilian needs only. This, together with the strict application of the priority plan, resulted in the curtailment of nonmilitary activities and the release of men and materials for those industries on the preferred list. Although this speeded up the defense program, it led inevitably to current shortages in civilian goods. Recognition of this situation led to the appointment of a committee in June 1918, to determine whether or not there were any so-called "nonessential industries" whose activities could be entirely abandoned for the period of the war.

This committee recommended that a balance should be maintained between the necessities of war and nonwar industries in the supply of raw materials, labor, and fuel, but that no industry should be prohibited. The committee gave recognition to the difficulty of economic readjustment after the war and felt that there were so few industries which could be classed as nonessential that only further dislocation would result should they be prohibited.

The indirect effect upon prices of consumer goods of the increasingly effective use of priorities has never been fully recognized. At the close of the war, shortages were acute in some consumer goods, notably woolen fabrics, cotton goods, and household furniture. Retail prices, already high, rose still higher. The cost-of-living index advanced more than 25 points between the close of the war and December 1919, and rose an additional 17 points to reach its peak in June 1920. In that month, the index stood at 216 percent of the pre-war level. Clothing and housefurnishings advanced the most; food and fuel the least. The consumer had been given but slight consideration in the control of textile prices.

#### ARMY AND NAVY PURCHASES

During the whole period, the heavy purchases of the War Department and the Navy were among the chief factors leading to governmental price regulations. These purchases ranged from the buying of food, clothing, and equipment for the men, to the purchase of machinery, vehicles, firearms, material and equipment for airplanes, naval stores, and other military supplies. It was, therefore, logical that these departments should have strong representation in every move toward price fixing.

However, they purchased goods in large quantities for which prices were never regulated by the War Industries Board nor later by the



Price Fixing Committee. The purchasing bureaus of these departments continued throughout the war to determine differentials from base prices set by the Price Fixing Committee and agreed upon base prices for some less important goods. It was their duty to attempt to place their orders at "just and reasonable prices." They had the power to compel the manufacture of goods or to take over factories or stocks of goods for Government use. Such power gave support to their own price negotiations with industry.

#### REGULATIONS IN CONSUMER-GOODS MARKET

##### *Food Control: National Food Administration*

By the summer of 1917, there was a serious dislocation in the food markets. The producer, the domestic consumer, and those buying both for the United States Government and for the Allies were alike gravely concerned. The European demand for cereals and meats was unprecedented. The 1917 wheat crop was short and the stocks of flour had dwindled until there was not enough to supply normal domestic demands and continue to feed the rationed people of Western Europe. Speculation in the wheat market had led to the closing of the Grain Exchanges in May 1917.

The passage of the Food Control Act in August 1917, was followed closely by the establishment of the United States Food Administration. The Food Board of the Council of National Defense had been operating since May with Mr. Herbert Hoover as its chief. The President had called Mr. Hoover back from Europe where he had been directing relief work and had become thoroughly familiar with the food needs both here and abroad. He was made the head of the Food Administration.

The only commodity for which price was controlled by statute during this period was wheat. Congress had set a minimum producer's price on wheat in order that growers should be guaranteed a fair return and so respond to the need for greatly increased production.

The control of prices of other foods, which gradually extended throughout all of the food industries from the producer on the farm and in the factory to the retailer and the consumer in every city and village, was made through the application of the licensing provisions of the Food Act. These gave the President the power to bring under control the dealers in any food commodity which he and the Food Administrator saw fit to regulate. Through proclamation, the President could require that manufacturers or distributors of food should obtain from the Food Administration a license to operate. Most of these licensees abided by the regulations which were issued from time to time by the Food Administration. Licenses could be revoked,

with consequent closing of licensees' factories or stores. In view of the extent of control exercised in this way, the number of cases in which the penalty was imposed was small.

The Food Control Act was administered through commodity divisions staffed by men familiar with the various food industries, in offices located in Washington. The regulations were carried out by State and local administrators. Although there was no power to "peg" or "fix" prices, the publication and wide distribution of so-called "fair price lists" was a potent influence for fair dealing. These lists were posted in retail food stores, and checks were made to insure dealer compliance.

The most powerful price control was exercised through the requirement of "a reasonable margin of profit" by licensees. Once this profit margin was established, it was a simple matter to compute sale prices. It is probable that the establishment of what should constitute a reasonable profit and the enforcement of its application was the most trying task with which the Food Administration was confronted. A study of food price levels in April and May 1917 as compared with the prices of the same commodities in 1918 leads to the inevitable conclusion that the controls inaugurated by the Food Administration afforded the public considerable protection at a time when prices bore no relation to cost of production and distribution.

#### *Coal Control: National Fuel Administration*

A unique situation had developed in the coal industry. Bituminous coal is used chiefly for industrial purposes, anthracite coal by householders. Supply and distribution had seldom been a matter for concern and prices normally moved within a comparatively narrow range, but in 1916 the speeding up of industry and additional transportation requirements had made tremendous demands upon the supply. Prices rose to unprecedented heights. The United States average price of bituminous coal at the mine rose from \$1.30 per ton in July 1916, to \$3.46 in December. A similar average of all sizes for anthracite went from \$2.29 in May 1916, to \$4.11 in May 1917. These price increases were accompanied by great shortages in transportation facilities and by unusually severe weather in the winter of 1916-17.

The coal situation in the summer of 1917 led to an amendment of the Food Control Bill which was then under debate. It gave the President power to fix prices of coal, and the law became generally known as the Food and Fuel Control Act. The Fuel Administration was established within 2 weeks of the passage of the act. This body took over and enlarged the work of the Coal Production Committee, appointed in April 1917 by the Council of National Defense.

No other regulatory body came as close to the consuming public nor had so definite a status in law for its price controls as the Fuel

Administration. The enforcement provisions of the law were so stringent as to make it improbable that there would be many violations. In addition to the control of the price of coal, the Administration exercised great powers in the regulation of production, conservation, and distribution.

The organization of the Fuel Administration was somewhat similar to that of the Food Administration, in its decentralization and the appointment of State and local administrators.

Public protest against the advances in coal prices was so great that even before the appointment of a Fuel Administrator, the President himself fixed specific prices at the mine for both bituminous and anthracite coal, subsequent to a study of cost figures for the industry submitted by the Federal Trade Commission. The first regulatory activity of the Fuel Administration was to dispel the confusion existing in the distribution of coal. This was done through the establishment of the so-called "zone system," under which producers were not allowed to sell coal outside fixed zone limits, without a written permit. The chief result of this system was to insure that local coal was consumed in nearby areas. The Fuel Administration was assisted in enforcing these rulings by the use of railroad embargoes after the nationalization of the railroads in December 1917.

In 1917, about 80 percent of the bituminous-coal production went to the railroads and the factories, and prices of bituminous coal had risen more than those of anthracite. When the President released his schedule of fixed prices for bituminous coal at the mine on August 21, he stated that it was his intention to extend this control through from the producer to the wholesaler and the retail distributor. These fixed prices were well under those established earlier by the Secretary of the Navy in agreement with producers. They were subject to modification and were increased in the fall of 1917 when wage increases were granted to the miners. In the spring of 1918 there was a freight reduction of 10 percent per net ton on all bituminous coal. Other modifications were made from time to time to adjust the selling price to variations in cost in different areas. It should be noted, however, that the fixed prices of bituminous coal, which were effective at the time of the signing of the Armistice, were well above the price level of the summer and fall of 1917. Such increases as occurred were nevertheless kept within bounds, and price relationships in different areas were stabilized through Government regulation.

Anthracite coal is consumed almost altogether by householders and constitutes a relatively small part of the total coal production. Since it was of little importance in military preparedness, it had not been given consideration by the Coal Production Committee. The Federal Trade Commission, however, in the spring of 1917 had entered



into voluntary price agreements with the producers. The fixed prices for anthracite as announced by the President in August were the same as or slightly higher than those reached in these agreements. These prices, too, were increased by executive order in December to provide for wage increases. Further increases were allowed to meet increased costs, but in November 1918 maximum prices of anthracite were established by the President. Gross margins for jobbers in the coal industry were fixed at a definite amount per net ton for bituminous and per gross ton for anthracite. All distributors were put under license control in the spring of 1918.

The control of retail prices of coal and the administration of these controls were very difficult because of the wide variation in kinds of coal and types of distributors. "No retail dealer under the plan was allowed to charge consumers a retail gross margin on coal in excess of the average gross margin, above his average cost, added by the same dealer during 1915, plus 30 percent of the 1915 margin."<sup>4</sup> The purpose of this type of regulation was to stabilize the price to the domestic consumer, and in general the trend of retail coal prices as published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for this period follows closely that for producer prices specifically fixed by the President, thus indicating no great change in distributors' margins.

The control of so varied and complicated an industry was greatly facilitated by the intensive study of production costs made by a committee appointed by the Fuel Administrator early in 1918. This is the only instance where definite cost data were so completely a part of the work of a regulatory body.

#### *War Trade Board*

The War Trade Board was created under Executive order of October 12, 1917, following the passage of the Trading With the Enemy Act. The Board took over the functions of the Export Administrative Board which had been appointed after passage of the Espionage Act in June 1917. The Board had wide powers over exports, imports, and enemy trade. It was composed of representatives from various Government bureaus. Other agencies with any responsibility for foreign trade, such as the United States Food Administration, maintained close contacts with the Board. Through its powers to restrict the imports and exports of goods, its regulations had an indirect effect upon prices. Any considerable restriction of the exports of a particular class of goods had a stabilizing effect upon the prices of these goods. The strict limitation of imports of consumer goods made stocks on hand more desirable, and higher prices usually resulted. This Board co-

<sup>4</sup> U. S. War Industries Board, Bulletin No. 3: Government Control Over Prices. Washington, 1920.

operated with the other regulatory agencies in obtaining agreements from licensees that prices of imported goods should be in line with prices established by these agencies. Another requirement was that the Government should have an option upon imported goods. The Board could stabilize the price of some domestic item by lifting the import restrictions upon a satisfactory substitute. If it was suspected that imports were being used for speculation, the Board could revoke the licenses of the offending firm.

### *Relaxation of Price Control*

Upon the signing of the Armistice, there was immediate relaxation of price control. The work of the War Industries Board was completed as of December 31, 1918. The Price-Fixing Committee continued to function into the spring of 1919. No new price agreements were made but it was felt that a gradual release of price control in some industries would make the post-war adjustment less difficult. The Food Administration lifted all controls except those where the limitations were set by law, as in the case of wheat. The Fuel Administration completed its work as of January 31, 1919. The War Trade Board, because of the character of its controls of imports and exports, was not disbanded until June 1919.

In summary, it is clear that price control through these various agencies was effective in putting a ceiling on prices of many commodities, as evidenced by the fact that prices of commodities over which some degree of price control was exercised never went as high as those on which prices were free. In December 1918 the all-commodities price index, as computed by the Price Section of the War Industries Board, stood at 194 for those commodities classed as controlled and at 211 for the uncontrolled items. In June 1919, when regulation had been largely relaxed, price levels of the two groups were quite close, in comparison with pre-war levels, and these indexes stood at 205 and 202, respectively.

NOTE.—The Bureau of Labor Statistics has available in mimeographed form more detailed reports on price controls in 1917-18 and on related subjects as follows:

Wartime Controls of Wheat, Flour, and Bread.

The Effect Upon the Civilian Market of the Wartime Control of Wool and Wool Products.

Market Conditions and Wartime Controls of Cotton Goods.

The Furniture Industry and Wartime Controls as They Affected the Consumer.

Regulation of the Shoe Industry—Factors Entering into Price Increases.

The Vegetable Canning Industry—1916-20.

The World War of 1914-18—Chronology of Important Events.

Summary of Historic Events in Labor Relations in the United States in World War Period, 1912-20.

## EFFECTS OF RISING COSTS ON QUALITY OF WEARING APPAREL,<sup>1</sup>

By LAURA MAE BROWN, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

THE disturbance of the market for finished textiles and apparel which followed the outbreak of the European war has been greatly aggravated in recent months as the result of the domestic rearmament program. Supplies of certain fibers, such as wool and linen, for which the United States is partially or entirely dependent upon foreign sources, have become more limited and their prices have advanced materially. The price of silk fluctuated violently throughout 1939 and the first half of 1940, but by the beginning of December 1940 had returned to its pre-war level. The pressure of heavy Army orders caused the price of worsted fabrics to rise even more rapidly than that of raw wool, in the latter part of 1940. In the cotton-textile industry, heavy orders for the Quartermaster's Service severely strained loom capacity for certain fabric constructions, such as jean cloth, duck, and narrow bed sheeting, and prices of these cloths rose accordingly, even though supplies of raw cotton were ample.

As a result of these changes, the prices of some finished textiles and clothing have advanced materially since August 1939. For example, reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate wholesale prices of linen handkerchiefs and linen table damask in January 1941 were 64 and 67 percent, respectively, above their pre-war levels, reflecting the marked shortage of linen imports. All-wool blankets advanced 25 percent during this period, while the wholesale prices of men's overalls and work shirts rose 12 percent and 9 percent, respectively.

However, these outright advances in price tell only part of the story. In many cases the adjustment to rising costs has taken the form of altering quality while leaving price unchanged. In fact, it is this latter mode of adjustment which has been the more common, because of certain peculiarities in the structure of the apparel market.

### *"Price Lines" and their Effect on Pricing Practice*

Over a period of years it has become the custom to sell many kinds of finished consumers' goods, particularly clothing and textile products, at certain generally accepted levels called "price lines." The intervals at which these price brackets are set vary for different classes of commodities. For example, women's street dresses are customarily sold at retail at \$5.95, \$6.95, \$7.95, \$10.95, \$14.95, and \$16.95, and not at intermediate prices. Women's slips ordinarily sell at \$1.00,

<sup>1</sup> This article is based on reports from Bureau of Labor Statistics retail-price field supervisors and on articles in the clothing-trade press.



\$1.19, \$1.98, \$2.98, and \$3.98. Men's popular-priced worsted suits commonly retail at \$19.75, \$25.00, and \$30.00; men's street shoes at \$2.98, \$4.00, and \$5.00; and men's shirts at \$1.00, \$1.39, \$1.65, and \$2.00.

This concentration of prices in conventional brackets at the retail level necessarily influences pricing practices at the wholesaling and manufacturing levels. In fact, there is some indication that price lines at the wholesale level are more rigid than at the retail level. In the women's dress field a manufacturing company comes to be known for example, as an "\$8.75 house" or a "\$14.75 house," and seldom changes its wholesale price. Although discounts from these price lines may modify the costs to different retailers slightly, competition is generally based upon styles and fabrics offered at the set price, rather than on variations in the price itself. On the other hand, as regards retail prices, such factors as different transportation costs, mark-up policies, and local competitive conditions account for slight variations between localities and between individual stores.<sup>2</sup> Quality changes are constantly being made to maintain these price lines during periods when material and labor costs are fluctuating within narrow limits. At such a time as the present, however, when the prices of certain textile fabrics advance sharply and rapidly, drastic quality changes sometimes become necessary if the customary price lines are to remain unchanged.

### *Modifications in Quality to Maintain Price*

There are many ways in which the quality of the garment may be modified in order to maintain conventional price lines. Of these, one of the most obvious is to change the character of the fabric by altering either the fiber content or the weave. When this is done there is often an effort to make the changes as inconspicuous as possible and to maintain as nearly as is feasible the former appearance of the product.

Thus, the advance in the price of wool has lead to the increasing use of rayon and wool mixtures in the manufacture of wearing apparel, blankets, and floor coverings. In the fall of 1939, when silk prices were advancing rapidly, rayon and silk mixtures were substituted extensively on women's medium-quality slips. In fact, for slips in the lowest price lines, silk was entirely displaced by rayon.

Cotton has also been used in recent months in combination with wool as the price of the latter advanced. Thus, reports received from the field agents of the Retail Price Division of the Bureau of Labor

<sup>2</sup> See Temporary National Economic Committee, Monograph No. 1: Price Behavior and Business Policy (pp. 242-249).

Statistics indicate that men's sweaters retailing for \$1.98 were maintained at that price line in the fall of 1940 by the expedient of mixing cotton with wool.

Increased fabric cost may be avoided in other ways which do not involve this kind of outright substitution. Thus, all-wool construction may be maintained by changing the grade of the yarn used without any admixture of cotton or rayon. Since the recent "truth in fabrics" law (Wool Products Labeling Act) requires the disclosure of the fiber content of woolen products, this latter type of variation is less likely to encounter consumer resistance.

At the present time, for example, manufacturers of men's worsted suits are using this procedure as one means of cutting costs. When men's worsted suits were first introduced on the market in the lower price lines, a "56" grade wool was used in the production of the fabric. Gradually, as raw wool prices dropped, better qualities were substituted until, for the past few years, a "64" grade had been used generally. Since the recent rise in raw-wool prices, many manufacturers are using a grade intermediate between the "56" and the "64."

The thread count of a fabric may be reduced without any changes in the grade of the yarn or fiber. This has been done, for example, in the manufacture of women's inexpensive wash frocks. For approximately 10 years, with the exception of a short period during 1937, manufacturers used 80 x 80 percale in these frocks. The prices of print cloths have advanced materially during the past few months and manufacturers are consequently turning to 68 x 72 percale, a lower grade the wearing qualities of which are appreciably poorer. Cost increases may also be avoided by changing the weight of a fabric without introducing a lower grade of fiber, or by reducing the thread count. It is reported that this practice is also being employed by some manufacturers of men's worsted suits. Thirteen-ounce, and in some cases even 12½-ounce, fabrics are being used to maintain conventional price brackets on suits which formerly were made mostly of 14-ounce fabrics.

In some cases, of course, raw material prices have advanced so rapidly that manufacturers have been forced to substitute an entirely different kind of fabric for the one previously used in the production of certain kinds of apparel. Thus, gabardine, a woven cloth, is being used to an increased extent for the uppers of women's shoes in order to maintain fixed price brackets in spite of rising leather markets.

Outright substitution of a different kind of fabric has also been necessary in some cases because of the diversion of loom capacity to defense needs. For example, rayon fabrics are being employed to a greater extent in women's dresses for the summer of 1941 than heretofore because many cotton mills have been booked to capacity with defense orders.

In many cases, of course, it is impossible wholly to avoid an increase in fabric costs by any or all of the methods enumerated. Under such circumstances it may still be possible to maintain customary price lines by reducing labor costs. For example, as it becomes increasingly difficult to produce a man's worsted suit to retail at \$25.00, some manufacturers may eliminate the handwork such as that on the collar and buttonholes, so that the suit will be entirely machine-made. It is stated by manufacturers that although the wearing qualities of the suit would suffer if the quality of the fabric were changed, minor hand-finished details add little either to appearance or to wearing quality and they prefer to sacrifice them first when necessary. Some such changes as these are now reported in the trade press as being planned by some manufacturers for the spring of 1941.

Style trends, especially in the lower price lines, are being influenced by changes in raw-material costs for the spring and fall seasons of 1941. Thus, softer woolen fabrics are being used increasingly in men's suits instead of the hard worsted cloths which have increased in price much more rapidly during the past few months. Moreover, trade journals report a decrease in the use of fancy woven fabrics for men's sport clothing and a corresponding increase in the semistaple fabrics, since labor production costs are higher on the former.

Advances in raw-fiber costs have also affected the prices of other finished textile goods. For example, rayon is being mixed with wool in the manufacture of lower-quality rugs in order to maintain established price lines. Similarly, manufacturers of sheets and chenille bedspreads are currently confronted with problems regarding adjustments of quality to maintain prices.

### *Factors Involved in Adjustment to Rising Costs*

#### FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE TRADE

In the spring and summer of 1941, as commodity markets become increasingly affected by the impact of the war abroad and rearmament at home, this entire problem of the maintenance of conventional price lines is likely to assume added importance. The manner in which adjustments to rising material and labor costs are made is a matter of serious concern to manufacturers, retailers, and consumers alike. From the point of view of the manufacturer of both semifinished and finished goods, it will be necessary to decide at each stage whether to adjust the quality of his merchandise to keep it at the price level to which his regular customers have become accustomed, or whether to increase prices and hope that his sales will not suffer thereby. The problem will be particularly acute in the case of manufacturers who have been producing for consumers in the lowest income brackets, whose budgets are least elastic and whose resistance to outright increases in price is, therefore, likely to be greatest.



From the point of view of the retailer, the problem will be largely similar. To the extent to which retailers can influence manufacturers' policies, they must interpret as best they can the probable reactions of their accustomed clientele to changes in price, or alternately to modifications of quality. Where manufacturers have raised prices at the wholesale level, retailers will be confronted with a choice between maintaining price lines by accepting reduced mark-ups or of introducing new price lines in the hope that they will find public acceptance. Both manufacturers and retailers will have to weigh short-term against long-term expediency; hidden quality changes may maintain sales for a while but lose customer goodwill in the end.

#### FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE CONSUMER

From the viewpoint of the consumer, too, no simple appraisal of these issues is possible. Within limits, minor quality changes may not impair the usefulness of a garment. The narrower hat bands introduced by one manufacturer in 1939 as a means of cutting costs can scarcely be interpreted as having affected serviceability. In some instances changes introduced as an economy measure may actually improve the usefulness of the product. Thus rayon toes, heels, and welts were introduced in lower-quality silk hose in the fall of 1939 in order to maintain price lines in the face of a "runaway" silk market. Experience proved the substitution to be so satisfactory that these changes have been retained, even though silk prices fell very sharply in the first half of 1940.

Experiences of this kind, however, are probably exceptional. In most cases fiber substitution, changes in fabric construction, and cutting corners in workmanship cannot be achieved without a definite impairment of quality. Whether such impairment is preferable to an outright increase in price must depend upon the circumstances. For the consumer in the lowest income brackets, it may be essential that some product, even though of considerably poorer quality, remain available at a price he can afford to pay. For most consumers, however, an open advance in price may be preferable to a hidden deterioration of quality, especially since the latter is often exceedingly difficult to detect.

#### EFFECT OF PRICE LINES ON INTERPRETATION OF PRICE STATISTICS

Finally, it may be pertinent to consider the effect of these practices upon the interpretation of wholesale and retail price statistics. Obviously the price changes which are reported in the ordinary course of collecting price data do not and cannot reflect all changes in quality of the kind which have been described. In general it can be said that price statistics, no matter how carefully gathered, are likely to under-

state the changes which are actually occurring in these markets; they fail to allow fully for improvement in quality on a falling market and, as at present, inadequately reflect reductions in quality which occur during a rising market. This is true, regardless of how carefully the specifications for price collection are prepared. Major modifications of fabric or workmanship can of course be detected, but there is no feasible way of making any quantitative allowance for all the countless changes which have been made and are being made in order to maintain customary price lines. All that can be done is to insure that those changes in quality which do occur shall be reported as accurately as possible as soon as they occur. Although such information cannot form a basis for the quantitative adjustment of a price index, it should be of great value in interpreting what is actually happening in commodity markets.

## COOPERATION IN THE BUILDING OF HOMES

By FLORENCE E. PARKER, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

### *Summary*

UNTIL comparatively recently, cooperative activity in the field of housing in the United States had been limited to apartment houses which had been built or purchased by cooperative groups. These were concentrated in Greater New York City.<sup>1</sup> Within the last 2 years, however, several cooperative developments providing single-family dwellings have been launched. Although none of these has as yet reached any considerable proportions as regards number of families housed, together they form a significant development not only in the cooperative movement but in the field of low-cost, nonprofit housing. The present report deals with seven such projects which have come to the attention of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These are situated in Penn-Craft, Pa.; Iona, Idaho; Chapel Hill, N. C.; Madison, Wis.; Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.; and Greenbelt, Md.<sup>2</sup>

By October 1940, 6 of these projects had a total of 157 dwellings either completed or in some stage of construction. In the seventh, ground had not yet been broken although land had been obtained.

In three of the associations (Penn-Craft, Iona, and Chapel Hill), some or all of the actual building work is done by the members themselves, by the exchange of labor; in all but one of the others, by a private contractor under association control (in Madison the members make individual contracts).

Three associations have taken over unimproved land and opened it for development, and two of these have done a complete job of community planning and lay-out, as well as of financing and providing the necessary utilities. The achievement of most of the other associations has been that of the purchase of city lots, of negotiating for architects' and contractors' services and for Federal Housing Administration insurance on loans, of controlling subcontracts, of making bulk purchases of materials, and of controlling construction.

These developments present an interesting variety and represent housing in various stages on the road to completely cooperative

<sup>1</sup> For information regarding such cooperative housing see *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1937, p. 1146 (or Serial No. R. 656).

<sup>2</sup> Although using land in the Government-built town of Greenbelt, the association here described is a voluntary independent association entirely distinct from the Government enterprise. Cooperative housing projects are known to be under consideration in several other communities, as for instance, Los Angeles and San Francisco, Calif., Chicago, Ill., Detroit, Mich., and North Kansas City, Mo. None of these appear to be sufficiently far advanced to warrant inclusion here.



housing enterprise. All lack the final characteristic of Rochdale cooperative housing procedure—permanent retention by the association of the title to land and dwellings. In a thoroughgoing cooperative, the member would hold shares of stock in the association to the value of his house and land. The construction of dwellings would be carried on by the association, and the member would never receive the title to the house he occupied, but only a lease running indefinitely for as long as he was acceptable to the other members. Several of the associations started out with the idea of adhering to strict cooperative practice. Difficulties of financing the project and of obtaining Federal insurance, on such a basis, led to the abandonment of the idea of collective ownership.

These associations have, however, made available, through joint effort, well-built houses of moderate cost to persons who would otherwise not have been able to afford them. They have effected savings in utilizing for a whole group of houses the services of a single architect and contractor, and in making bulk purchases of many items of material and equipment.

Further development is possible on land already owned by the association in Chapel Hill, Madison, Minneapolis, and St. Paul, and on leased land in Greenbelt. Present capacity has been reached in Penn-Craft.

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSING GROUPS

Public employees and employees of a nearby University formed the majority of the members in Madison and Greenbelt, university building-service employees in Chapel Hill, and coal miners in Penn-Craft. The membership of the Iona cooperative was drawn from a variety of occupations. The annual incomes of the members averaged about \$1,700 to \$1,800 in Minneapolis, and ranged from \$1,600 to \$4,500 in Madison, and from \$1,248 to less than \$2,400 in St. Paul. Data on this point are not available for the other projects.

#### BUILDING SITES

Three of the groups (Penn-Craft, Chapel Hill, and Madison) purchased on an acreage basis undeveloped and unimproved land which they plotted into housing sites. The Greenbelt association will utilize land unimproved but for which all improvements are available from the planned community of which the housing project will be a part. In Minneapolis and St. Paul the association took over city lots, already improved, which had reverted to the State because of tax delinquencies. In the seventh group (Iona) the member was required to have title to a building lot before being admitted to participation in the scheme; for such land, water and electricity, but not sewer, were available.

Land purchase was involved in all cases except that of the Greenbelt association. The dwellings of the members of that association will be erected on land leased from the Federal Government.

The associations studied include rural, small-town, and urban developments. In the Twin Cities the land acquired was within the city limits but several miles from the center of town, in Chapel Hill and Madison it was in a suburb of the city, in Iona and Greenbelt within towns of several hundred families, and in Penn-Craft it was in a rural district though within a few miles of several good-sized towns and cities.

Building lots of generous size are provided. In Chapel Hill the lots average 125 by 160 feet, in Madison 60 by 120 feet, and in Minneapolis 50 and 60 by 125 feet. The St. Paul association, buying 40-foot lots, replotted them into 60-foot widths having a depth ranging from 112 to 126 feet. In Penn-Craft the individual holdings range from  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 3 acres each.

#### TYPES AND COST OF HOUSES

All of the houses being built on these sites are single-family dwellings and the majority are of frame construction. All of the Penn-Craft houses, however, are of native stone quarried nearby. At Madison, the buildings are more or less evenly divided between those built of wood and those made of concrete blocks. Two-story houses form nearly all of the dwellings at Penn-Craft, one-story houses predominate in the Iona, Minneapolis, and St. Paul projects, while both types are found in Chapel Hill and Madison. The dwellings in the projects visited<sup>3</sup> are equipped with all modern conveniences, including water and sewer systems, electricity, central heating, and garage. Both traditional and modern styles of architecture are being utilized.

Sizes range from the two-bedroom house with living room, kitchen (with dinette), and bath, to the four-bedroom house with living room, kitchen, dining room, and recreation room. The bid cost per house has ranged from \$4,100 to \$6,500 in Madison, from \$3,750 to \$5,400 in St. Paul, from \$4,100 to \$6,000 in Minneapolis, from \$2,750 to \$5,000 in Chapel Hill, and from \$3,500 to \$6,500 in Greenbelt.<sup>4</sup> In the case of Penn-Craft and Iona it is impossible to fix a definite cost, as the members have supplied so much of the construction labor. The loan to cover materials was \$2,000 in Penn-Craft<sup>5</sup> and \$1,500 in Iona.

<sup>3</sup> Madison, Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Penn-Craft.

<sup>4</sup> In the case of Greenbelt these figures are for standard plans; houses deviating from these plans will cost more.

<sup>5</sup> In Penn-Craft it is estimated that the completed house is worth about \$3,000 for tax purposes and at least \$4,000 in the real-estate market. No actual cost-to-member figures are available, however.

In the three projects operating on the "self-help" plan (Penn-Craft, Iona, and Chapel Hill), the financing has been on a different basis from that of the other groups. In the case of Penn-Craft the funds from which the housing loans have been made were donated to the American Friends Service Committee, a Quaker organization. In Iona, money remaining from an FERA grant made under the terms of the Federal Relief Act has been used as a revolving loan fund, and by the payment of interest, fines, etc., has been nearly doubled since the association has been in operation. In Chapel Hill the housing funds have been supplied by the Service Employees Corporation at the University of North Carolina and by a private lending agency. In all of these cases the loans have been used only to cover the cost of materials. The actual work of excavation and construction has been done entirely by the members at Penn-Craft and Iona, while in Chapel Hill certain parts of the work have been done by them.

The initial financing in Madison was done through the issuance of capital stock in a required amount per member, sufficient to cover cost of land and water system; in Greenbelt by the issuance of capital stock and a special service-charge assessment; and in Minneapolis and St. Paul by the issuance of membership certificates and the sale of lots at a mark-up sufficiently high to cover the cost of public-improvement assessments and organization expenses. The initial cost to the member averages \$22 in Greenbelt, \$210 in Chapel Hill, \$350 in St. Paul, \$375 in Minneapolis, and \$500 in Madison. Except for Greenbelt, these figures cover the cost of the land to the member. The lower cost in the Twin Cities as compared to Madison is in part due to the fact that the cost of the land to the association was based not upon current prices but upon the amount of the tax delinquency of the former owners.

All of these associations have arranged for FHA insurance on the building loans. In the case of the St. Paul members, such loans were obtained from the local credit-union chapter. Loans for the members of the other three associations have come from private lending agencies.

In order to obtain FHA insurance on low-cost houses, the borrower must have an equity equal to 10 percent of the cost of the house. Cost of land, if equal to 10 percent, is regarded as such an equity. Therefore in many cases the land formed the necessary equity. In cases in which the value of the land fell below 10 percent of the cost of the house, the member was required to furnish additional capital to meet the difference. He also has to provide for certain extra charges ("closing costs") which may increase the total by \$50 or \$100 more. The "down" cost to the member, therefore, before construction can be begun has ranged from \$450 to \$650 in Madison, \$425 to



\$600 in Minneapolis, \$375 to \$540 in St. Paul, and \$372 to \$672 in Greenbelt.

In Penn-Craft, Chapel Hill, Minneapolis, and St. Paul, the association exercises close supervision over purchases of materials, sub-contracts, and the construction process. The Penn-Craft, Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Greenbelt organizations are each using the services of a single architect and contractor. At Madison each member chooses his own architect and contractor. Joint purchase of equipment, where a saving could be made, has been carried on for the whole group of houses in Chapel Hill, St. Paul, and Minneapolis, and the same procedure is planned for the Greenbelt project.

In most of the seven associations some measure of control is exercised over the style of architecture, in order that it shall not deviate too widely from that of other dwellings nearby. The Madison association also requires that the total house cost shall not be less than \$3,000. All but the "self-help" groups also require that in case a member wishes to sell his house it must first be offered to the association. If the association does not exercise its option, the member may sell to an outsider, but the purchaser must be acceptable to the other members.

### *Penn-Craft Community, Pa.*

There are at least three housing projects in the United States in which the members themselves have performed some or all of the work of building the houses. These are at Iona, Idaho;<sup>6</sup> Penn-Craft, Pa.;<sup>6</sup> and Chapel Hill, N. C. In the first two of these, practically all of the construction was done by the members; in the third only certain processes.

The Penn-Craft experiment in housing dates from the spring of 1937. Under the auspices of the American Friends Service Committee, a project to house 50 families of coal miners was launched, using funds donated for the purpose.

A farm of 200 acres near Republic, Pa., was purchased and subdivided into plots of 1½ to 3 acres. Under the colonizing plan, not to exceed \$2,000 in cash is made available to each family accepted. This amount is to cover cash costs of land, materials, and skilled labor, and public utilities.

The construction work is done by the homesteaders under the direction of a skilled mason and a skilled carpenter who work on a wage basis. For work done on each homesteader's house, the homesteader agrees to pay (in labor) a similar number of hours on the dwellings of the other colonists.

<sup>6</sup> For a detailed description, as of June 1930, see Monthly Labor Review for September 1930 (or Serial No. R. 999).

As construction work, under the plan, goes on only in intervals between paid employment in the nearby coal mines, progress is necessarily slow. In June 1939, there were 13 houses under roof and ready for, or in various stages of, interior finishing. None was yet ready for occupancy. A number of others were in the early stages. By October 1940, 35 houses were under roof—15 completed and occupied, and the remainder in varying stages of interior finishing. Nine others were in stages of construction short of the roof. It was expected that most of these would be occupied by midwinter. There remained only 6 houses on which no work had been done.

The houses are built of the red stone native to the locality. The floor plan and exterior of a typical house are shown in figure 1.

Examination of the "labor" accounts of the different families reveals "labor debts" of all sizes. One homesteader at the end of September 1940 had moved into his house, had his labor debt all paid, and had an hour to his credit; another had also discharged his debt and had 101 hours' credit. A few homesteaders, on whose houses little or no work had been done, had considerable amounts of credit. Others were facing increasing labor indebtedness, as work was going forward on their dwellings at a rate faster than they could repay it.

Increasing industrial activity throughout the country had brought about a great demand for coal, so that employment was fairly brisk at nearby mines. The result was to leave little free time for work on the Penn-Craft houses. Only three or four gangs were working at the time of the visit of the Bureau's representative. The community association, however, was arranging for an evening shift on the houses so that men employed during the day could put in their labor hours.

#### PAID EMPLOYMENT

At the time of the Bureau's previous study (June 1939), the problem of paid employment for the homesteaders and their families was a serious one. In October 1940 this problem was not acute, because of the activity of the local mines. Anticipating renewed hard times after the end of the defense need, the management and the association are studying future employment possibilities in various lines. One of the possibilities being considered is that of growing and processing some specialized crop or crops for which the soil is suited and which would be marketable. Advice is being sought from the State Agricultural College on this.

In the meantime the association has leased an additional 250 acres (100 acres had already been utilized in farm land), with the privilege of purchase. It is hoped that some of the younger people in the colony can be interested in this project.

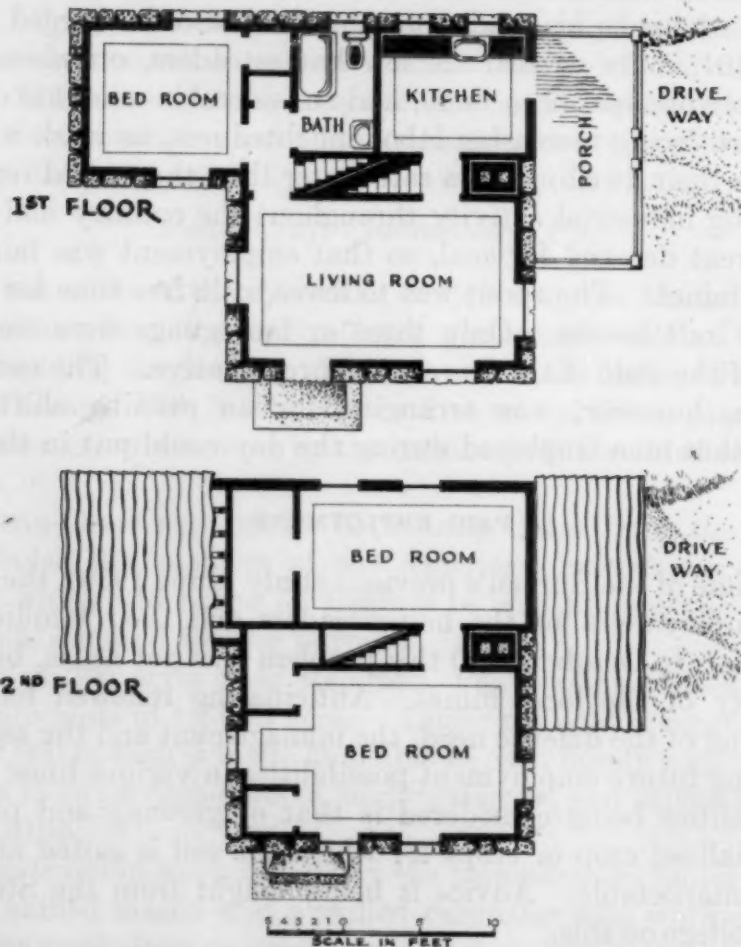
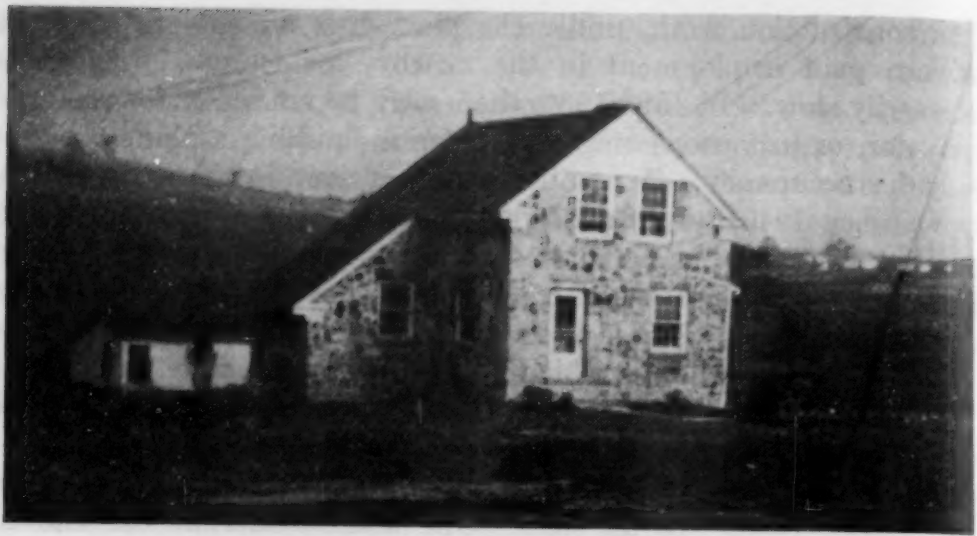


FIG. 1.—EXTERIOR AND FLOOR PLANS OF NATIVE RED STONE HOUSE AT PENN-CRAFT, PA.

Loan of \$2,000 was divided as follows: \$1,250 for materials, \$175 for land, \$300 for skilled labor, and remainder for outbuildings and pro-rata share of cost of community water and road system. Finished house valued at \$4,000.



The sweater factory which had just gotten well under way in June 1939 was running at capacity in October 1940 and was employing an average of 20 persons, about half of whom are young people and the others are women of from 35 to 55 years of age. Acquisition of orders for product in sufficient volume for efficient operation has been the chief problem of this factory.

A small rug-weaving plant was also being operated by a young homesteader who was sent by the colony to Penland Folk School (North Carolina) for training. The equipment was provided by the association, from which he is purchasing it. Under his agreement with the association he gives instructions at a nominal fee to other homesteaders who may desire to weave their own rugs, or if they prefer, does the weaving for them. The materials used are waste cuttings from the sweater factory. The young rug operator has devised arrangements which allow the making of a continuous supply without re-threading, and which also provide greater strength and durability, while at the same time giving the appearance of a hand-hooked rug.

#### COMMUNITY AND COOPERATIVE ACTIVITIES

All of the community activities and committees are still in existence, though temporarily quiescent because local energies are being concentrated on completion of construction.

The most active organizations are the well-baby clinic and the maternal-health clinic which are continuing without interruption.

During the summer a credit union was started, but this is still in its infancy.

The cooperative store has increased its membership to 54, has a share capital of \$256, and total assets of \$698. During August 1940 its sales amounted to over \$1,000, but in September fell to \$848.

#### *Oakwood Community, Chapel Hill, N. C.*

The project at Chapel Hill has been directed by the Service Employees Corporation, a private corporation whose stockholders are key men in the business organization of the University of North Carolina. This corporation was formed in 1936 for the purpose of providing social and recreational facilities. At first its activities were carried on in rented quarters, but in 1938 it purchased a clubhouse. Later it assisted three employees to obtain building sites on easy terms. From this an officer of the corporation conceived the idea of providing houses for the building service and maintenance workers employed by the university, largely on the basis of exchange of labor.

Membership in the housing group was limited to employees in the university service plants (building-maintenance department, laundry, service stores, accounting, purchasing, and clerical divisions), the

university auxiliary enterprises which serve the university and the town of Chapel Hill (water department, telephone exchange, and electric light and power production and distribution).

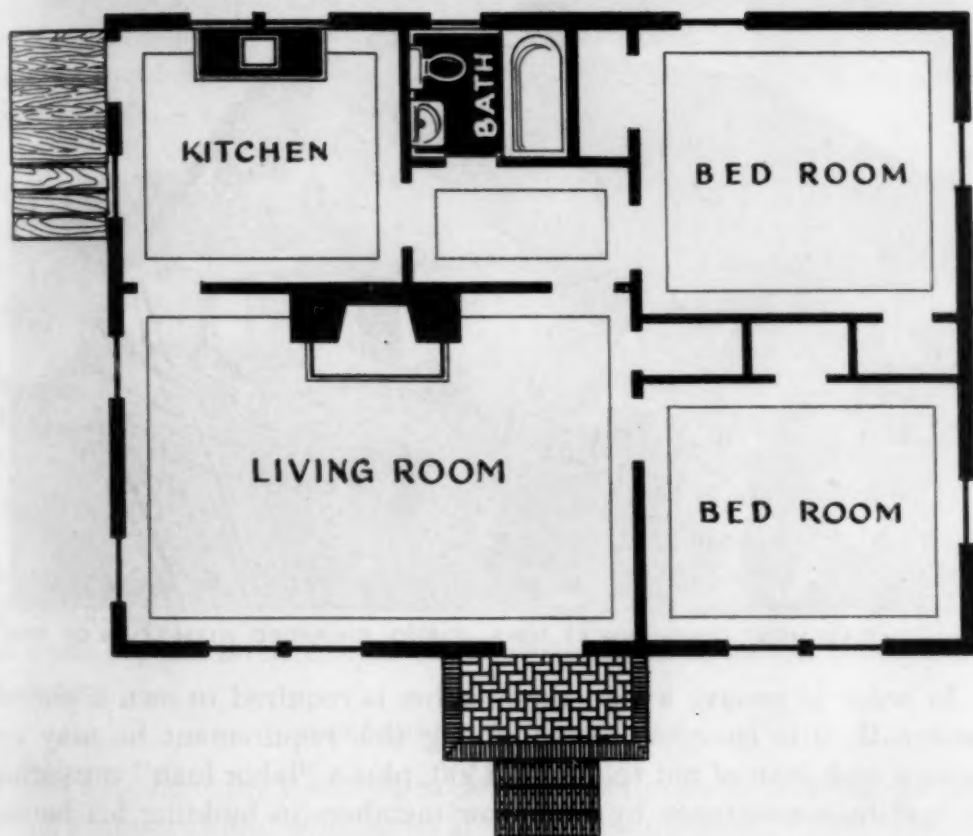
The housing scheme was launched in March 1940. Employees who wished to participate were invited to come together and organize themselves into the "Employees Housing Group #1." Members were to work together under a foreman selected by themselves, the project being under the auspices of the Service Employees Corporation. A 40-acre tract of land about 2 miles from the center of Chapel Hill was obtained for \$2,200 and was christened "Oakwood." Part of the ground was laid out in 50 plots of 125 x 160 feet. The lots were priced at \$210 each and were distributed by the drawing of lots. It was planned to erect the houses, 3 at a time, in the order of the number drawn. Thus holders of lots Nos. 1, 2, and 3 were to have their dwellings built first, then those of Nos. 4, 5, and 6, and so forth.

Under the plan the amount to be expended on materials was limited to \$2,000 per house, and no loan could exceed  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times the borrower's annual income or a maximum of \$4,500.

An architect was engaged at a fee of 2 percent of the cost of construction—a saving of 2 percent. Bids for the main structure of the houses were let on contract. The Service Employees Corporation purchased the building materials and supplies on competitive bids, and the fixtures and equipment for the houses were bought through a local wholesaler at a saving of about 25 percent. All of the road building, clearing, grading, and basement and septic-tank excavation was done by the participating members. They are also doing the painting and the electric wiring, as well as installing the plumbing and the heating system.

As in the Iona and Penn-Craft projects, labor accounts are kept in terms of hours worked, the member receiving credit for time worked on other members' dwellings and being debited with hours worked by them on his house. The project is being financed from funds of the Service Employees Corporation, by loans from an insurance company, and by FHA insurance. Title to the property is retained by the corporation until each participant has satisfied his labor debt. When that is done, the member will receive a deed to house and lot and will be financed for the exact amount expended on it.

By November 1940, six houses had been completed, five were under construction, and plans were drawn for three more. They are of brick or frame construction, and follow a variety of styles. (See fig. 2.) These dwellings have ranged in cost from \$2,750 to \$5,000, or about 25 cents per cubic foot. The labor cost of the typical house of five to six rooms has averaged about \$1,200, of which the personal labor of the members formed about \$500.



5 4 3 2 1 0 5 10  
SCALE IN FEET

FIG. 2.—EXTERIOR AND FLOOR PLANS OF TYPICAL HOUSE AT OAKWOOD (CHAPEL HILL, N. C.), BUILT FOR APPRENTICE ELECTRICIAN.



The member must make a down payment of 10 percent of the total value, but of this the cost of the lot constitutes a considerable proportion. Monthly charges on a typical house average \$21.54 plus \$1.80 for taxes and insurance, or a total of \$23.34.

### *Iona Self-Help Cooperative*

To fulfill an urgent need for habitable living quarters, for amounts which they could pay, 15 families in Iona, Idaho (later joined by 6 others), undertook a self-help housing project in 1934. A small revolving fund was obtained under the State-Federal self-help program in effect at that time and this has been used to make loans to members for housing purposes.



FIG. 3.—BASEMENT DWELLING AT IONA, IDAHO, FINANCED WITH LOAN OF \$500.

In order to receive a loan the member is required to own a plot of land with title clear. Upon fulfilling this requirement he may receive a cash loan of not to exceed \$500, plus a "labor loan" consisting of part-time assistance by his fellow members in building his house. The lot is accepted as security for the loan.

The labor loan must be repaid by the borrower in labor on the houses of the other members, and the cash loan is paid over a period of from 2 to 5 years. Payments range from \$3 to \$10 per month, which is generally less than the amount previously paid in rent. When the loan is paid and the labor claims satisfied, the borrower receives title to the property.

Generally three loans are necessary to provide for the construction of a complete house. The first finances the building of the basement, usually divided into several rooms, so as to serve as living quarters during repayment of the loan (see fig. 3); the second covers cost of the superstructure, i. e., walls, roof, and windows; and the third buys the materials for the interior finish of the dwelling.

Thus, in a period of 6 to 10 years the family owns a home worth \$2,000 to \$2,500, without owing more than \$500 in cash at any one time and without paying more than \$12 interest in any year. It is the exchange of labor, of course, that reduces the total cost. Various other economies have also been effected by the members, by salvaging materials from demolished buildings, by using native stone, by making their own building blocks, etc.

The houses are equipped with cesspools, running water, and electric lights.

Under the program 13 houses have been completed and paid for, 4 have progressed to the superstructure stage, and in 4 only the basements have been completed. An indication of the types of houses is given in figs. 4 and 5.

In the 6 years since the revolving fund was established, it has grown (by payment of interest, fines for delinquency, etc.) from \$1,650 to \$3,000. As of October 1940, all of the money was out on loan, plus about \$200 in borrowed funds. There are seven families on the waiting list to receive loans as soon as funds are available.

The report from the association points out that the fund has always provided sufficient money to finance the participating group, but "if there had been more in the fund we could have touched more people. As it is, we have had to limit our membership growth to those we had funds to serve."

As of November 1940 there was only one labor loan on the books. Any new building would, it is reported, be hampered by the difficulty of obtaining members, under present conditions, who would be willing to work for the labor credits of 30 cents an hour, as did the original members.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY ACTIVITIES

The supplementary activities designed to improve community and living standards and conditions are being maintained. These include the "self-help store," social affairs sponsored by the association, garden plots for production of food, arrangements for medical and dental care, and a credit union.

In case of sickness the borrower is given an extension of time on his loan. In order to protect the families in case the breadwinner died, the association adopted a plan of "widows' insurance." Under this

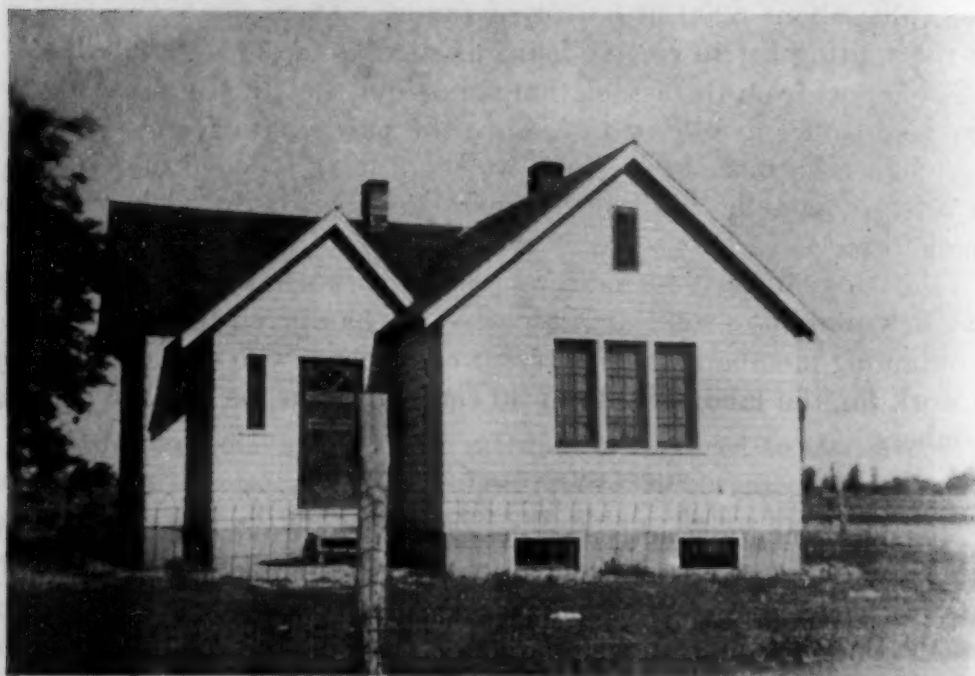


FIG. 4.—ORIGINAL HOUSE (UPPER) OF IONA (IDAHO) COOPERATOR WHO, WITH FELLOW MEMBERS, BUILT HIMSELF A NEW DWELLING (LOWER) WITH THREE LOANS OF \$500 EACH.



plan each borrower pays 10 cents a year on each \$100 of his cash loan still owing. If the borrower died the association would take a mortgage in the amount still owed and give the widow a deed to the house, permitting her to live there the rest of her life without further payment. Upon her death the heirs could obtain possession by repayment of the mortgage; failing this, the house would revert to the association.



FIG. 5.—HOUSE BUILT BY MEMBERS OF SELF-HELP COOPERATIVE AT IONA, IDAHO, AND FINANCED BY THREE LOANS OF \$500 EACH.

The credit union which the members started with about \$100, in October 1940 had \$1,700 in capital. It has been utilized to supplement the housing program. The report from the association states that the building project has shown a profit from the beginning and the credit union has been of considerable assistance. Indeed, "we could lose our revolving fund and still have more to work with than we had at first. This would indicate that we might have done this work without a grant if we had only known what we do now."

#### RESULTS OF SELF-HELP PROGRAM

In the course of the program the families have learned to work together for their own benefit and for social purposes. By helping themselves they have improved their living standards, have raised their morale, and have learned new skills which have contributed to their economic rehabilitation.

The results, both material and in terms of intangible benefits, which the program has produced, are described by the accountant for the association as follows:

From 80 percent on relief we are now 35 percent WPA. The comeback of many is very startling. One who used to drive the co-op truck now drives the high-school bus (his own) at \$180 per month. One has qualified to go onto a \$10,000 rehabilitation test farm. We know he will make his payments. Some are working out as carpenters; some in concrete work; one makes cabinets; some do plumbing; and all are better trained and skilled as a result of their self-help schooling. \* \* \*

The self-help can train men to get better jobs and to become partially skilled so that they are in demand, but we have lost money every time we have tried to "make jobs" for our men. We don't seem to have the capital necessary to provide work for any amount of people. \* \* \*

It is strange to see how the self-help movement has leavened the lump. The well-to-do man can't see a WPA self-helper have a cesspool and bath when he has not even a modern kitchen sink. There has been as much contagion in this as in chicken pox. \* \* \*

In conclusion let me just say that our taxes are all paid, we are in our own home, we know that as long as we do our best we won't be turned out because of our loan, and our wife and children have a home if we drop off. We can borrow a little in a pinch, we have our winter's coal and quite a store of food, plenty of hay for the milk cow, and good self-help neighbors. I just wonder if we're not the happiest people in the world today.<sup>7</sup>

### *Crestwood Community, Madison, Wis.*

Crestwood is the name of the housing development sponsored by the Wisconsin Cooperative Housing Association, Madison, Wis.

The original group that planned the housing project consisted of persons employed in the various State offices. Through their organization, the Wisconsin State Employees' Association, the first steps were taken in 1936. Later, that association gave way to the housing association proper. Although State employees still form the majority of the members, there are also in membership not only Federal employees and members of the State university faculty, but also a few local business men. The incomes in the group range from about \$1,600 to as high as \$4,500 per year.

Actual construction of the houses did not begin until 1938. In the interval a tract of 75 acres of land (space for 200 houses) was acquired in a convenient suburb and plans were drawn up for a large-scale development with houses of similar architecture, the whole to be owned by the association and leased to the individual members according to accepted cooperative standards.

Long negotiations with the Federal Housing Authority, from which it was desired to obtain loan insurance, resulted in the association's having to change its original plan and to provide for individual

<sup>7</sup> Letter of November 12, 1940, from Eugene Olsen, Iona, Idaho.

ownership of both lots and houses. This long delay also entailed considerable loss to the association, in preparation and scrapping of plans and in decrease of members as they lost patience and interest. Finally the project plans, covering 20 houses, were approved by FHA, and construction of the first house began in August 1938.

#### COMMUNITY LAY-OUT

By taking over the entire tract the association was able to plan in advance the lay-out of a whole community. In this work the association was fortunate in having the assistance of a member with long experience in land utilization. Under his guidance, the plotting of the tract was carried out after a topographical survey had been made to enable use of all the natural features to the best advantage.

The whole tract (about half a mile long and a quarter of a mile wide) forms a natural amphitheater, with the land sloping up, first gently, then more steeply, to the south, west, and north. The elevation at the highest point is about 1,000 feet above sea level, representing a rise of about 100 feet from the lowest point of the "bowl." The accompanying diagram (fig. 6) shows the lay-out of the tract. The wavy lines indicate the rising levels. The top of the slope is thickly wooded (hence the name "Crestwood") and it is planned to leave this as community land for everyone to enjoy.

A broad avenue, named for the president of the association, curves through the tract at the edge of the central bowl, and from this avenue dead-end streets run toward the woods, providing quiet as well as safety from traffic. The wooded slope affords shelter from the north winds and shade in the afternoon. The slight pitch of the streets (which have center drainage) helps to keep the streets free from rain and snow. As indicated on the diagram, a narrow strip of community land also runs down between each two cul-de-sacs. This land will be utilized as play space for the children or for such other common purposes as the members determine. Altogether, about 20 percent of the entire tract is left as community land, title to this area being held by the association.

In the lowest part of the bowl, near the center, lies an area with rich alluvial soil, which is to be devoted to home gardens. Each member is free to utilize a section of this area and many did so the past summer.

In the garden area the association also maintains a tree and shrub nursery with over 6,000 plants, buying these when very small and raising them until they reach usable size.

High up on the slope to the east was an old stone quarry. The association gave the University of Wisconsin the privilege of using



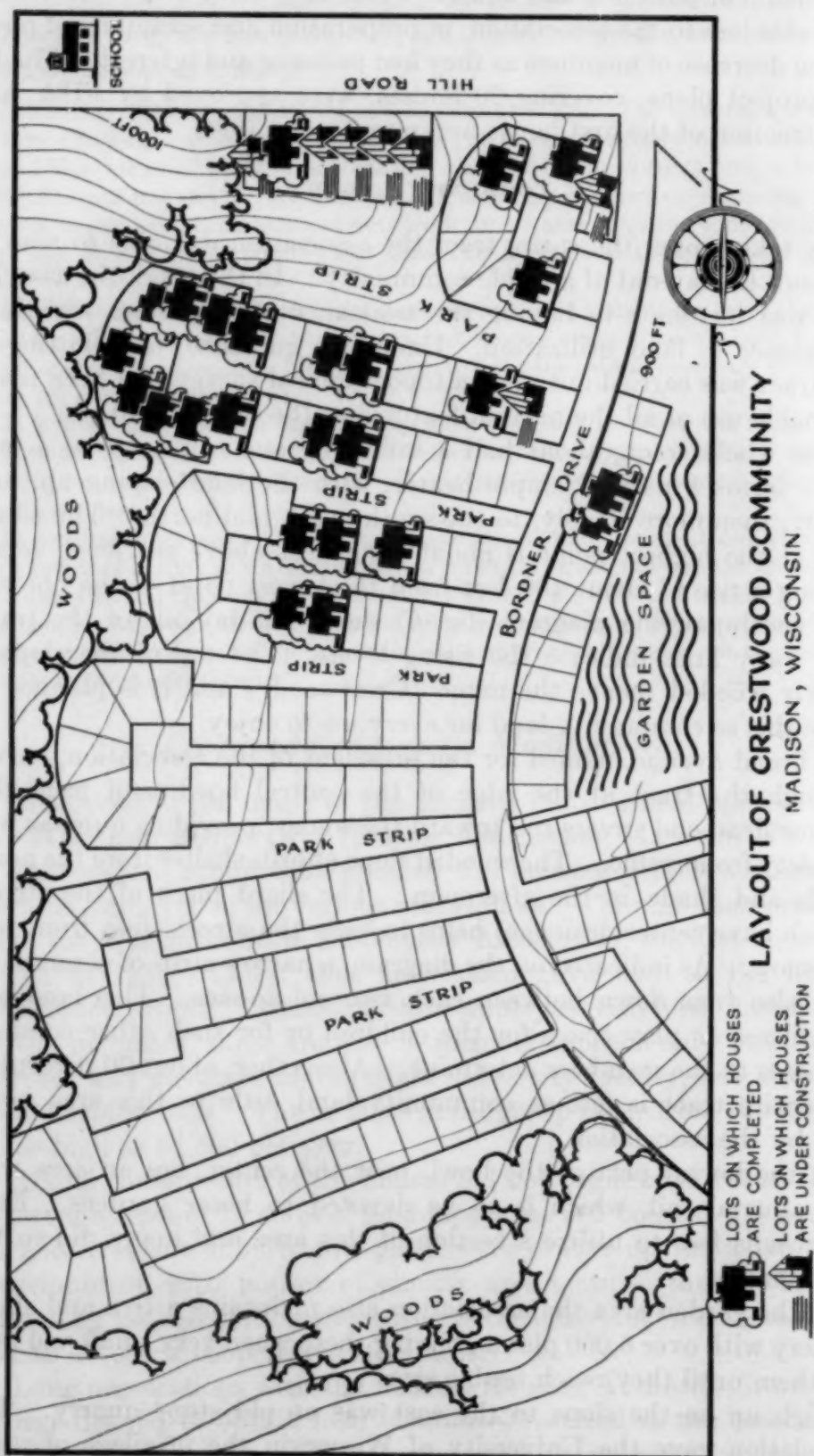


FIG. 6.—DEVELOPMENT OF CRESTWOOD, WIS., AS OF OCTOBER 1940, ON WHAT WAS UNIMPROVED FARM LAND

the stone therefrom for one of its projects, specifying only that all the stone should be removed and the area cleared out. The space that is left now forms a bowl of considerable size which the recreation committee hopes to make into an outdoor community theater.

The development is situated on the outskirts of the city, 5 miles from the capitol. It is served by a bus line, and members can reach the city in 10 to 15 minutes' ride. There is a school at the edge of the settlement (see fig. 6), and an addition is being built to this, to accommodate the additional children. A shopping center, providing varied services, is situated about three-fourths of a mile distant.

#### FINANCING OF COMMUNITY SERVICES

When the association purchased the tract, electricity was available, but there was no water supply and the city sewer system ended a mile away. Both water and sewer, therefore, had to be furnished by the organization. For the former, bonds totaling \$7,000 were issued and the proceeds were used to drill an artesian well, high up on the slope, and to build a neat station to house the pumping machinery.

The association was incorporated for \$100,000 of stock, half common and half preferred, at \$50 per share. The non-interest-bearing common stock, of which each member must have 3 shares, was intended as payment for the land.

The proceeds from the preferred stock were used to finance the installation of the sewer system and each member was required to purchase a minimum of 6 shares.

The association then organized a sanitary district to sponsor the installation of the sewer, turned over to it the sum of \$11,000 collected in preferred stock, and received in turn 30-year assessment bonds paying 5-percent interest. The money was used to build a mile-long installation connecting with the Metropolitan Sewer District trunk sewer and to lay sewers in the streets of the subdivision. This connection will be controlled by the association for 30 years, during which period, if other subdivisions wish to use the sewer, a portion of the original cost must be assumed by them to retire the bonds held by the Cooperative Housing Association.

The surfacing of the streets was done by the township, but the previous leveling of the streets and the razing of the farm buildings originally on the place was done by the association and cost about \$2,500.

When the association has completed development of all the 200 houses that can be accommodated on the land, it will have received more than \$100,000 for its stock and land. The difference between actual outlay and this figure represents the association's "potential net earnings," which may be distributed to the members in the pro-

portion that their outlay has borne to the total or may be used for further community development, as the members decide.

#### COST TO INDIVIDUAL MEMBER

In order to insure that all the members shall be "active," the by-laws specify that no person shall be admitted unless he "executes and files with the association a written statement that he intends to participate in the cooperative housing program of the association and to make his residence in the community \* \* \* as soon as reasonably practicable and feasible."

Each person accepted is required to subscribe for three shares of common stock at \$50 per share (covering cost of land). These shares may be paid for in installments, but if so a promissory note or other evidence of indebtedness must be given, the voting privilege being extended after at least \$50 is paid in.

Having been admitted to participation, the member is entitled to select a lot. Selection of lots is by "priority of the dates of stock subscription." The lots average 60 by 120 feet. The basic price per lot is \$450, but the more desirable locations run higher. In fixing the price, certain "desirability" factors (seclusion, view, and environment) were taken into consideration, each factor carrying an extra charge of \$50. For the less desirable lots, the \$450 covers the total cost of lot and stock; for the most desirable lots the cost runs as high as \$600, and one lot, high on the hill road, is priced at \$700. The average of the lots already purchased is about \$500. This represents a considerable saving from the current local prices for fully serviced real estate, and it is possible that the price may eventually be still further reduced by refunds, after the entire development is completed and all costs are computed.

When the member has completed payment for his stock, plus any "desirability factors," he receives title to his land. He then is ready to negotiate for a dwelling. From this point onward, he acts for himself. The construction of his house is his responsibility, except that he may utilize one of the association's floor plans drawn for the association under the original scheme of collective ownership.

Before construction may be undertaken, the plan chosen must be submitted to an architectural committee, in order to insure that the style will not clash with that of the rest of the community. The total cost may not fall below \$3,000, and none thus far have done so. The member must also furnish evidence of eligibility for FHA insurance or of his ability to finance construction without such insurance.

Some of the members have reduced costs by doing some of the work themselves. Thus, one member who is an electrician wired his own house. He and several of the other members have done their own painting.



Most of the financing has been through two local lending agencies, with FHA insurance. The member's monthly expense includes amortization payment, interest, and certain community charges. These latter include water rent (proportioned to use, minimum \$17 per year), and 25 cents per month for garbage collection. The assessment for sewer is incorporated in the taxes and averages \$2 to \$3 per year.

A member desiring to withdraw has the right to sell his house, provided the purchaser is acceptable to the association and provided his stock is transferred to the purchaser.

#### TYPES OF DWELLINGS

The houses exhibit a variety of architecture and of material. One of the larger houses has a field-stone front. Several are of wood, being either painted or stained, but perhaps the greatest number are constructed of 8-inch concrete blocks with cores filled with waylite. In architecture the dwellings range from the Cape Cod cottage to the most modern style. In cost they have ranged from \$4,100 to \$6,500.

All are of the one-family type. They consist of kitchen, dining room or breakfast nook, bathroom, living room, and (with one exception) two or three bedrooms; the exception is a four-bedroom house.

All of the dwellings at Crestwood are equipped with oil burners, and a number have fireplaces as well. All but two have built-in garage. A recreation room is also a feature commonly found. All have standard plumbing and electrical equipment and about half are of fireproof construction.

Practically none of the dwellings thus far erected faces squarely any of the cardinal points of the compass. Generally they are turned slightly, so that each room in the house receives sunlight at some time of day.

#### PRESENT STATUS OF ASSOCIATION

Of 33 houses on the tract in October 1940, 7 were under construction and 26 were finished and occupied. Of these completed dwellings, only 24 are owned by members. The other 2 (plots indicated on east side of drive) were built by a private builder, this expedient being necessary in order to bring the initial number of houses up to the level of FHA requirements. The stock covering the cost of the land on which these houses stand is being held in escrow by the association until such time as purchasers are found for them. At present they are being rented.

As the diagram on page 17 indicates, thus far only one division has been opened and construction has taken place on only three cul-de-sacs and the outer (hill) road.

Recently the association has itself undertaken the construction of a dwelling, the money for which was received from an anonymous donor. This house will consist of a living room, kitchen, bathroom, two bedrooms, and a built-in garage and will be equipped with all the utilities as well as with water softener, "fluid heat," and electric water heater. The total bid cost of this house is \$4,180.

It is expected to provide a plan, in connection with this house, which will appeal especially to young couples. The procedure will be as follows: The family will be required to purchase the lot, on the usual basis; or possibly, it may even be accepted on a rental basis, the accrual over expenses being used to finance the family membership. When the householder has paid for his lot he will make the usual arrangements with a lending agency and the FHA. The loan from the lender will be used to pay the housing association and the money thus released will be used in the construction of another house on the same basis.

#### EXTENT OF COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE

The achievements of the association have been the following: (1) The purchase and plotting of the tract; (2) the financing and installation of a water and sewer system; (3) the creation of a sanitary district; (4) the furnishing of architectural service; and (5) the supplying of title insurance for members. The houses were constructed by individual contract and the association has no control over them except to pass upon the general style of architecture, to see that the cost does not fall below the minimum of \$3,000, and to pass upon the acceptability of purchasers.

Each member has one vote only, regardless of his investment, and no proxy voting is allowed.

A cooperative nursery is being carried on by the mothers in the community. In rotation, each mother serves a day, having charge of the small children and thus leaving the other mothers free to go about their affairs, secure in the knowledge that the babies are safe.

Many of the electric fixtures were bought through one of the members (a dealer in such appliances), at a saving of about 25 percent. Some furniture was also purchased collectively, at a saving, by special arrangement. Cooperative purchase of eggs, poultry, etc., is also carried on. The housewives alternate in acting as agent, taking the orders and receiving and apportioning the goods.

A large proportion of the residents are members of the cooperatives in the city, these including a gasoline service station, a buying club, a consumer-owned dairy, and an association giving dry-cleaning service. As most of the members work in town and so have to go in every day, these associations can fill their wants conveniently. Thus, the fuel oil for all of the furnaces is supplied by the local cooperative gasoline station.

### *St. Paul Housing Project*

The Minneapolis and St. Paul housing projects have a number of things in common. Both are nonstock, nonprofit associations, incorporated under the Minnesota Cooperative Law, and composed largely or entirely of credit-union members. They require from the member only a fee of \$5.

In both associations the member has but one vote, and both give the member title to land and dwelling. Both require the member, desiring to sell out, to give the association first chance to buy. If he disposes of the property, the purchaser must be approved by the association.

In both, the dwellings are being constructed on land which had reverted to the State because of tax delinquencies. Both associations have utilized the services of a single architect and in each city a single contractor, working on a fee basis, has been engaged. In both cities the associations have been fortunate in obtaining the services of lawyers, architects, and contractors who were interested in the idea of cooperative housing. Both are effecting savings through bulk purchases of materials and equipment.

The projects differ in that modernity is the prevailing keynote in Minneapolis, whereas in St. Paul the architectural style tends toward the traditional. This is the intentional result of trying to bring out all possible plans, materials, and constructional methods so that a broad base of experience might be a guide in future developments. In the nearly 50 houses now completed or under construction, there has been no duplication of plans. In St. Paul, construction has been financed through credit-union loans, in Minneapolis through regular lending agencies.

The specific contribution of these projects has been the savings effected by joint action in the planning, purchasing of materials, and erection of the dwellings.

The Cooperative Housing Association of St. Paul was formed in September 1939. Construction began in July 1940.

The association, composed of members of credit unions of Federal, State, and city civil-service employees, purchased from the State 72 lots which had reverted because of nonpayment of taxes. On this property already had been installed the utilities—gas, electricity, water, and sewer—as well as streets. Only curb and sidewalks were lacking.

The land on which the project is being developed is on an elevation at the northeastern edge of St. Paul, about 3 miles from the center of town. A grade school is about three blocks away and a high school is about a mile distant. Four blocks from the project is a bus line, accepting token fares and offering transfer privileges.



## FINANCING AND PROCEDURES

The association has no capital stock. As each member joins the association he pays a \$5 membership fee and agrees to buy a lot and construct a house on it. The project has been financed through the sale of lots to the members, by loans from the St. Paul chapter of the Minnesota State Credit Union League, and FHA insurance.

The lots, with an average frontage of 40 feet, were replotted into 48 lots with a frontage of 60 feet each. The depth varies from 112 to 126 feet. There is also a 20-foot alley. The cost to the association was \$75 per 40-foot lot (or \$112 on the replotted basis); the price to the member is \$350. The difference is used for association expenses, but any surplus after the project is completed will be returned in patronage refunds.

Minnesota has a strong credit-union movement, with large accumulations of funds. As the State act permits credit unions to make real-estate loans, the central credit-union organization qualified as an FHA lending agency and proceeded to make mortgage loans on a 25-year basis to finance the individual dwellings. FHA insurance was then applied for, and in most cases the maximum FHA insurance of 90 percent of the appraised value was granted.

With one exception,<sup>8</sup> a single architect has served the whole group of owners, receiving as his fee 3 percent on the total cost.

Likewise, one contractor has had charge of construction of all but one house.<sup>9</sup> With this contractor the association has a contract by which the contractor guarantees his bid on each house; if the final cost exceeds this amount he bears the extra expense. If there is a saving, it must be returned to the member, to increase his equity in the property.<sup>9</sup> His bid is based upon cost of construction (materials and labor) plus architect's fee, plus a \$100 "cushion." The contractor's compensation consists of a flat fee of \$250 per house.

As the association's charter authorizes it to act as contractor, the selection of materials and the letting of contracts for them are done by the board of directors. In this the association has tried to make use of all possible sources of assistance and information, in order to insure the best quality. Results of tests by recognized testing agencies have been used, and valuable help has been received from the State university.

Prefabricated materials and standard equipment have been used wherever possible. Thus, although a few of the houses are plastered, the majority are finished with tinted Upson board—a prefabricated material that comes in sheets 8 by 16 feet (doing away with joints

<sup>8</sup> The exception was a member, himself an architect, who was allowed to draw his own plans and supervise construction of his house.

<sup>9</sup> An FHA regulation forbids the return of such savings, in cash; the amount must be used to reduce the mortgage.

that might let in drafts), the space between the walls being filled with 2 inches of glass wool, vapor sealed. Heavy plywood is used in sub-floors and in outside wall and roof sheathing; this construction is cheaper and makes for a more rigid house with less air leakage. A factory-finished oak flooring has been used in all houses.

As the dwellings have been constructed in groups of about 10 and the contracts let on the basis of 25 houses, it has been possible to do quantity purchasing, such as carlot quantities of lumber and plywood, gross orders of standard plumbing fixtures, window glass, and other requirements. This has resulted in substantial savings. On the lighting fixtures and refrigerators about 40 percent was saved, and nearly 50 percent saving was realized on some furniture bought jointly.

Again, by building a number of houses simultaneously, efficient use of labor has been possible, each crew of workers performing the same task from house to house and being succeeded by the workers who perform the next process in construction.

Only persons belonging to some St. Paul credit union <sup>10</sup> are accepted for membership. Prospective members are also required to supply information on their employment, income, number of dependents, and financial obligations, in order to determine their eligibility, from a financial standpoint. Members joining the association must purchase a lot, at a price of \$350. This sum represents a considerable part of the 10-percent equity the member must have to obtain FHA insurance. This \$350 includes the \$5 membership fee.

The cost of the individual house depends upon the size and style selected, and upon the quality of the equipment that goes into it. If the member desires extra-fine hardwood flooring, or a deluxe refrigerator, these will of course bring up the cost. However, as the members for whom the dwellings are being built all receive modest incomes (the incomes of those now participating range from \$104 to less than \$200 per month), the houses are also of moderate-priced styles. The buildings constructed thus far have ranged from the two-bedroom, living room, kitchen (with dinette) and bathroom to a seven-room house with three bedrooms, living room, kitchen, dining room, and bathroom. All of the houses built thus far are of frame construction. Many have fireplaces, a few have recreation rooms, and nearly all have garages (built separately from the house).

The maximum bid cost has ranged from \$3,750 to \$5,400. Although final cost figures are not available at the present stage, it appears that the savings will approximate \$100 per house. These savings will be returned to the individual members in the proportion that the contract price of their house bears to the total cost of all houses. This prorated sum will then be applied to the reduction of the member's mortgage.

<sup>10</sup> As credit unions are allowed to make loans only to members.

The "profit" which the association makes on the lot will eventually be returned to the member, after expenses are deducted.

For these houses the average cost to the member is about \$35 per month, with a maximum of about \$40. This sum includes amortization, interest (4½ percent, plus ½ percent for FHA insurance), and taxes. These payments begin 30 days after the member moves into his dwelling. No other "down" payment than the value of the lot is required from the member if his house costs \$3,500 or less. Above that amount he must pay down 10 percent of the excess over \$3,500.

The association's officers point out that the cost to the member for the houses is about what he would pay to a private builder for the same size and style of house. They emphasize, however, that under the association's plan there is no profit for anyone, as officers serve without pay, and architect and contractor are on a fee basis. All subcontracts and material contracts are subject to the approval of the board, which likewise controls all payments. The entire cost of the project, therefore, is under the control of the association. Because of economies effected by carload purchases, by standardization (as of window and door openings), and by systematizing the use of labor, the officials are convinced that the quality obtained in both materials and workmanship is considerably above that which would be obtained in houses of the same price under separate private contracts. In other words, the association has made available to a low-income group, for amounts they can afford to pay, dwellings of a quality that would otherwise be out of their reach.

At the end of October 1940, there were 12 houses completed and occupied, 13 under construction, and 4 being planned. All were expected to be finished and ready for occupancy by January 1941.

It is intended, during the winter, to plan a new group of dwellings for construction in the spring. For 1941, also, a plan is being considered of building at least 50 houses under \$2,500 in price, outside the city limits where land is cheaper and taxes are lower. To obtain houses at this price, the plans would be limited to not more than 10 variants of a simple 4-room dwelling with full basement and oil-burning furnace. This type of house, the officers believe, could be financed on a 95-percent FHA mortgage with monthly payments of \$15 to \$20, covering principal, interest, taxes, and insurance. The plan would necessitate prefabrication in a shop on the project and the installation of a cooperative water system.

#### COOPERATIVE ACTIVITIES

The activities of the cooperative association have included the purchase of the land, the engagement of architect and contractor, and the letting of bids for materials and equipment. It holds title to the individual plots until sold, then turns them over to the pur-



chaser. The member then negotiates with the association's architect and contractor for the kind of house he wants, and when he moves into it the association's responsibility ends.

In the purchase of refrigerators, electrical equipment, and furniture, the association patronized the two nearest cooperative wholesales. In houses in which Upson board is used for interior wall finish, the walls are tinted with a casein wash made by a cooperative creamery association in Minneapolis.

There are in St. Paul various local cooperative enterprises—a grocery store, gasoline station, etc.—and a large proportion of the members belong to them. Most of the houses are equipped with oil-burning furnaces, and the fuel oil for these comes from the local cooperative that deals in petroleum products. Cooperative life insurance, as well as insurance for automobiles, is also available.

In the association each member has one vote. He owns and has title to his individual dwelling, but if he desires to sell his house at any time within the next 5 years the purchaser must be acceptable to the association. If not, he must give the association the right to purchase it for what it cost him or at an amount set by an arbitration committee.

### *Minneapolis Housing Project*

The Cooperative Housing Association of Minneapolis was started in February 1940. Construction was begun on the first house in September 1940.

As in St. Paul, the association bought the land for its project from the State, paying for it at the rate of one-third of the tax assessment which was delinquent. Some 59 lots in 5 different adjoining blocks in northeast Minneapolis were acquired in this way. The lots were 40 by 125 feet, but were replotted into lots 50 and 60 feet wide. The average cost to the association was \$2.50 per front foot, but the land was sold to the member at \$7.50 per foot (its appraised FHA value). All of the improvements—water, sewer, gas, electricity, and streets—were already in, but the association was required to pay the regular assessments therefor. A considerable part of the difference between the cost to the association and the sale price to the member went to meet these assessments. The association, however, is suing the State for refund, contending that under the law the price of tax-reversion land includes utilities. Any amount recovered will be refunded to the members.

The land acquired is about 4 miles from the center of Minneapolis. A grade school is situated about in the center of the tract, so that the distance traversed by the children will in no case exceed 2½ city blocks. The nearest high school is a mile and a half away. Stores are within easy walking distance.

The streetcar line is six blocks away. The nearest bus line, now ending four blocks below the project, is being extended into the development.

There were, in the original group of interested members, 45 persons. During the interval in which financing negotiations were carried on, 3 members lost patience and withdrew, a fourth lost his net worth by fire, and 10 others were rejected because their incomes were too low to undertake the financial obligations involved. There were in October 1940, 31 members remaining and houses for 20 of these were under construction. None had as yet been completed.

#### FINANCES AND PROCEDURE

As already indicated, the association paid for the land an average of \$2.50 per front foot and sold it to the members for about \$7.50. For corner lots an additional \$25 was required.

The architect was hired by the association for a fee amounting to 2 percent of the cost of the houses.

A master contract for the whole group of houses was made with a large contracting firm, by which the latter receives a fee amounting to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  percent of the total cost of the dwellings (minus the architect's fee), and for which he agrees to manage the construction of all the houses. The contractor in return guarantees to keep the cost of the houses within the amount of the maximum bid, or failing this, to meet the excess cost himself. As an incentive for saving on the cost of construction, the contract provides that for the first hundred dollars of such saving, 25 percent shall go to the contractor and the remainder to the owner. The contractor, however, has the privilege of totaling costs for all houses, so that a surplus on one may help to take care of a deficit on another. The association controls the purchasing done by the contractor; no purchase or subcontract can be let without approval by the board of directors.

The contract also provides that the work on the houses shall be done by union workmen receiving the prevailing union scale of wages, and the contractor agrees to give the carpenters a bonus of 50 percent of their regular hourly rate for every hour of labor saved from the contractor's estimate.

The bid prices on the houses under construction in October 1940 ranged from \$4,100 to \$6,000. The average or typical house has cost about \$4,700, or from 28 to 30 cents per cubic foot. All of the houses are of frame construction, and will be equipped with all modern improvements, including furnaces using natural gas.

As in St. Paul, considerable reductions in price have been obtained by quantity purchases. The officers estimate that at least \$200 per house has been saved in the cost of materials and equipment. Other savings have resulted, through the use of the Torrens title (i. e., the

taking of title to many lots at once), in attorney's fees, and in title charges. Whereas the title charge for one lot is \$25, when the title covers 3 or more lots the charge averages only about \$7 per lot. Because the association held title to the whole tract, title insurance was unnecessary and the cost of insurance was therefore saved. Lower tax rates are also possible because of the larger valuation covered by the single tax title.

#### COST TO INDIVIDUAL MEMBER

Each member is required to furnish information regarding his financial status and to pay a membership fee of \$5. He selects his lot in the order in which he comes into the association. According to the size of the plot chosen, this cost ranges from \$300 to \$450. The average is about \$375.

This constitutes most of the 10-percent equity he must have in order to qualify for FHA insurance. He doubtless will have to furnish a certain amount, in addition. Thus, a 90-percent guaranty on a \$5,000 house would cover a maximum loan of \$4,500. The difference between the two sums—\$500—must be made up by the member. The cost of his lot (average \$375) will cover most of it, but the remaining \$125 and an estimated \$50 to \$75 for "closing costs" must be raised by the member. The immediate investment required from the member therefore amounts to about \$425 to \$600, depending on the cost of his house and on FHA appraisal of its value in the light of style and construction elements which together constitute the "marketability."

It is estimated that the member's average monthly payment (amortization, interest, loan insurance, and fire insurance) will amount to about \$24.50 a month on a \$4,600 house with a 25-year mortgage. Taxes in this neighborhood and on houses of these values will average another \$8 per month. The average income for the group is \$1,700 to \$1,800.

Of the houses thus far approved by FHA, about 60 percent have received a 90-percent loan guaranty. The guaranty for the others has been reduced because of various deviations from FHA conditions.

#### *Greenbelt, Md., Project*

In July 1940 the Federal Farm Security Administration announced that it would open to private ownership certain land in the community of Greenbelt, Md. Greenbelt was one of the three towns<sup>11</sup> planned and built by the Federal Government as demonstrations of low-rental, model communities. In Greenbelt all of the land and housing is owned by the Government and rented to families with moderate incomes.

<sup>11</sup> The other two are Greenhills (near Cincinnati) and Greendale (near Milwaukee).



Under the new plan, public ownership of the land would still be retained, but the householders would receive a 99-year lease and be allowed to build their own houses.

One group of persons interested in the new arrangement in August 1940 formed a cooperative association, Greenbelt Homeowners Cooperative, Inc., and applied for land under the plan. By October the association reported that 44 families had signed up for space and FSA officials had tentatively allotted 44 lots in a rolling, wooded area, with an option on 50 additional lots. It was expected that ground would be broken for the first group of houses before the end of 1940.

As in the projects previously described, there will be private (not cooperative) ownership of the houses when they are built. The function of the association will be confined to (1) leasing the land from the FSA and subleasing it to the members, (2) negotiating for architectural plans and contractors' services, (3) making volume purchases of building materials, plumbing, heating equipment and electrical fixtures, furniture, etc., (4) after the houses are constructed, acting as agent for the collection of ground rentals and enforcement of certain community standards.

Each person who joins the association must pay a nonrefundable service charge of \$10 and purchase a \$10 share of stock (which is his membership share) plus 5 shares payable in installments (of \$2 per month), which will be put into a fund to be used (a) for the purchase of the house of any member who because of transfer of his job elsewhere finds it necessary to leave the community or (b) to pay the carrying charges until a satisfactory purchaser can be found.

Three basic floor plans have been drawn up and are available to members. These call for houses costing \$3,500, \$4,800, and \$6,500. A member willing to utilize one of these plans without change will pay an architect's fee of 3½ percent. Should he desire substantial changes the fee will be 3½ percent plus 6 percent of the cost of the alteration. For these amounts the architect agrees to orient the houses on the entire tract, making use of natural contours, and to oversee all stages of construction. The member will be required to make a down payment of 10 percent of the cost of the house he chooses, which will provide the 10-percent equity required to receive FHA insurance.

The Greenbelt plan will provide for nonprofit housing (no official of the association receives any remuneration), and will have the benefit of the savings made by having only one architect and one contractor and having a whole group of dwellings constructed at one time. This project also will benefit by elimination of land cost, except for the ground rent (expected to range from \$10 to \$20 per year).

Most of the members of the association are employees of the Federal Government or of the University of Maryland.

Unusual community and cooperative advantages will be available to the members. The town of Greenbelt, of which the cooperative housing development will be a part, has a grocery store, drug store, barber shop, beauty shop, dry-cleaning service, laundry, shoe-repair shop, gasoline filling station, medical and hospital service, and movie theater, all operated on a cooperative basis. It will not be necessary, therefore, for the members of the housing cooperative to start any new enterprises of their own.

Excellent school facilities are within a short distance, as are also a swimming pool and numerous other recreational facilities.

## WARTIME LABOR IN CHINA

By S. K. SHELDON TSO<sup>1</sup>

IN THE midst of the Sino-Japanese hostilities, China's economic and social structure in the coastal regions has been utterly disrupted, but in the meantime industrialization has been taking place with great rapidity in the southwestern frontiers which used to be considered a barren wilderness. As a result, the working classes of China find themselves in a chaotic and often pathetic state. This is due primarily to the maladjustment in the labor market, with an abundant labor supply on the coast and a great demand for labor in the interior, but with no facilities for transfer. Another serious factor in the situation has been the continuous rise of prices. These difficulties are, of course, always concomitants of war in any country. But in China the problems have been particularly serious because the Government has had to relax its administration of the earlier peacetime labor laws and has not been in a position to develop a wartime labor policy.

### *Labor Legislation and Administration*

Owing to the superabundance of labor and to the illiteracy prevailing among the working classes in China, both the agrarian workers and handicraftsmen had for thousands of years accepted the existing conditions of work and pay, and strikes and labor difficulties were almost unknown. It was only when Dr. Sun Yat-sen's "Three People's Principles" were instilled into their minds that the workers' class consciousness was aroused, and it was not until about 1926 that trade-unions appeared on the scene. The National Government realized the significance of these developments, and established a Department of Labor in order to cope with the new situation. A series of labor laws, such as the factory law, the union law, and the law on arbitration and conciliation, was promulgated, and thereafter working conditions greatly improved. There was a reduction of daily working hours from 12 to 10, and a rise of average wages from, roughly, \$15 to \$30. This improvement in industrial conditions and industrial relations accounts in large part for the inactivity of labor movements in recent years.

Unfortunately, the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese hostilities halted the program of labor legislation and administration and the matter of workers' welfare was left to fend for itself, as it were, as the National Government had abolished the Department of Labor for the sake of wartime economy. During the past 3 years of war the workers,

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aware of the national crisis, and in a patriotic spirit, have remained silent as to their grievances. Nevertheless, if one studies the effects of war on the working classes, it is found that labor problems do exist both in the coastal regions and in the interior.

### *Conditions in the Coastal Regions*

The workers in the coastal regions have been most affected by the war, as practically all the industries, railways, and ships were either destroyed or damaged by the war. In Shanghai alone, according to the pre-war statistics of the Industrial Section of the Shanghai Municipal Council, 3,800 factories and workshops were registered with the Council. During the 3 months of the Chinese war of resistance in 1937, 905 factories and workshops were completely destroyed by shells. This figure includes neither the factories and workshops outside of the Settlement nor those which were partly damaged and suspended.

According to the statistics of the Labor Annual of 1933, there were at that time 234,070 factory workers in Shanghai, and their number increased to some 300,000 in 1936. When hostilities broke out in August 1937, the great majority of these industrial workers were thrown out of jobs and sought shelter in the refugees' camps. Only 27,000 workers were reported to have retained their work in the factories inside of the Settlement. It can therefore be seen that more than 200,000 workers suffered unemployment, and although a great number of these unemployed were deported to their native towns, enough of them remained to overcrowd the refugees' camps in Shanghai.

After the evacuation of Chinese troops from Shanghai, industrial activities began to increase again, and most of the factories resumed operation under Japanese management. The great majority of the unemployed workers, for patriotic reasons, endeavored to find employment in industries owned by the Americans or British. But the capacity of these factories failed to accommodate the superabundant unemployed workers, and the refugees' camps had also to turn them out due to lack of funds. The workers were thus compelled to take whatever jobs they could get, regardless of the amount of wages offered. Thus, at the end of 1938 the employed industrial workers in Shanghai again increased to about 237,000, and there were more than 4,700 factories and workshops which had resumed operation. Industrial recovery thus amounted to approximately 80 percent of the pre-war level; the rest of the industrial establishments were either destroyed by the war or removed to the interior of China.

But the industrial recovery referred to proved to be but temporary, lasting only a little over a year. In the spring of 1940 business depression began to threaten every line of industrial activity. The

cotton-textile plants abolished night shifts and, after a few months, suspended a part of their daytime operation. As a result, total production was reduced to about 30 percent of the former level. Other industries, such as iron foundries, silk filatures, etc., followed suit. Among the 32 electrical supply factories 22 were closed, and more than half of the 600 clothing workshops went into liquidation in July. At that time, only about 20 percent of the total industrial establishments in Shanghai were active. As a result, serious unemployment again threatened the working classes.

Because of the oversupply of available workers and increased prices, real wages tended to drop to a serious extent. According to the statistics compiled by the Industrial Section of Shanghai's Municipal Council, in January 1940, the cost-of-living index of Shanghai workers in comparison with that of 1936 as 100 were as follows: Food, 338; rent, 305; clothing, 241; fuel, 374; miscellaneous expenditures, 255; and the total index, 325. In June 1940 this level was further raised to 422.91 and in July, to 449.8. This rise in prices without proportionate increases in nominal wages naturally means a decrease in the worker's real wages. In sum, it appears that the war has reduced the former purchasing power of the Chinese dollar to less than 30 cents. Facing this grave situation, the industrial workers in Shanghai recently resorted to strikes by which an average increase of 20 to 30 percent in wages was obtained, but this increase was far from sufficient to offset the effect of the upward tendency of price levels.

### *Conditions in the Southwestern Provinces*

In the southwestern Provinces, where new industries are being built up rapidly, some entirely new labor problems have arisen. One is unemployment—not unemployment as suffered by the workers in the coastal regions, but unemployment arising from the maladjustment of the labor market. Since the southwestern Provinces were practically wilderness before the war, the numerous factories newly established in these regions have found it exceedingly difficult to enlist skilled workers. In spite of oversupply of unemployed workers in the coastal regions, the difficulty of communications has prevented them from moving into these distant Provinces. Thus, unlike pre-war times, it is the shortage in the labor supply and not a lack of capital that has so greatly encumbered the speed of industrial development in the interior. Under these circumstances, some employers resort to the training of unskilled laborers. This takes 2 or 3 months' time and also involves quite heavy costs. In other factories, the employers attempt to solve this problem by enticing workers from neighboring establishments by the offer of higher pay, but this results in another serious problem—that of high labor turn-over.

The shortage of the labor supply is further aggravated by conscription, which not infrequently takes away the already scarce skilled laborers. It is estimated that the army has drained more than a million able-bodied men from the southwestern Provinces. The difficulty of transportation and the insufficiency of production have caused prices in these Provinces to rise sharply. Although there is no accurate index of price levels, it has been observed that, on the average, the price for domestic products (such as rice, coal, and cotton) has gone up to 600-700 percent of the pre-war level, whereas the average price of imported commodities has increased more than tenfold. Thus, in these Provinces the average purchasing power of a Chinese dollar is equivalent to approximately 10 to 15 cents of its pre-war value. In the meantime wages have increased only by some 100 to 200 percent; that is, the average wage of the skilled workers is three dollars a day, while that of the unskilled workers is two dollars. Nominal wages are therefore substantially increased, but real wages still lag.

Welfare work is also a problem. Because of the rapid development of this region, housing of the workers is often bad and many of the factories are no more than huts made of mud, with poor light and ventilation. There are few safety devices, as most of the factories were constructed in great haste. The worst working conditions are probably found in the mining industry. Accidents caused by outbursts of gas and the collapse of the poorly supported roofs often occur. Such bad working conditions are especially prevalent in places distant from the wartime capital. However, because of the workers' desire and willingness to contribute their bit to the cause of the nation, there is little or no labor unrest in the interior, and the unionization movement has been practically suspended. With the exception of northern Shensi, where the communistic influence is active, all workers in the cities are either loosely organized or not organized at all. The Government has necessarily centered its full attention on military affairs, and has been able to give little attention to wartime labor problems.

### *Proposed Wartime Labor Policy*

With a view to mobilizing industries in the interior, the Executive Yuan called an Industrial Conference in May 1938. The writer was appointed as an expert adviser on labor problems to attend the meetings. In a lengthy proposal ameliorative measures were taken up as follows:

1. To reestablish the Department of Labor. Ever since the abolition of the Department of Labor, the labor administration has virtually been suspended and the workers' welfare is thus seriously affected by the war. A Government institution similar to the British Wartime Labor Board or the American Department of



Labor should be recreated to resume labor administration such as the readjustment of labor markets and the enforcement of factory inspection in the interior as well as the welfare of workers from the coastal regions.

2. To install a system of labor exchanges. The shortage of skilled workers in the interior becomes a serious problem in the course of industrial mobilization. A labor exchange should be immediately created to recruit skilled workers in the Japanese occupied districts. At the same time the plan for road building should be materialized so as to solve the unskilled workers' unemployment problem. Steps should also be taken to minimize the present labor turn-over; that is, the Government should issue working permits when the workers are shifted from one industry to another.

3. To revise the system of conscription and forced labor. The indiscriminate system of conscription and forced labor in the past, as adopted by the Government, has caused the shortage in the labor supply. Great care should be taken to revise the conscription law by exempting both the skilled industrial workers and transport laborers on the highway from any kind of military service and forced labor. At the same time the schedule for military training should also be revised so as not to encroach upon the laborers' working hours.

4. To organize workers both in the interior and in the Japanese-occupied districts. The relaxation in unionization since the outbreak of Sino-Japanese hostilities has greatly handicapped economic mobilization and has especially affected workers' welfare. The only remedy for this situation is to revive the unionization activity; that is, the proposed labor authority should take steps to encourage the organization of trade-unions by granting subsidies and due supervision.

5. To promote welfare work in the factories. The Government's neglect of welfare work during wartime is chiefly due to the suspension of factory inspection. It should resume the work of factory inspection in order to see that safety devices, such as ventilation, light, etc., are properly provided in the workshops.

6. To prevent labor unrest by means of conciliation and arbitration. The decline in real wages, together with the other sources of workers' grievances, will eventually lead to labor unrest. The Government authority should look into these matters and take steps to organize a conciliation and arbitration committee in every industrial city in the interior. In case of prolonged disputes, the Government should take over the industry and readjust the differences.

The foregoing proposals were unanimously passed and adopted by the Industrial Conference, but have not as yet been put into practice because of financial reasons. Recently, the workers in Shanghai have begun to express their grievances by numerous strikes. From November 1939 to January 1940, a total of 37 strikes occurred in which approximately 800,000 workers participated. Their demands were chiefly for the readjustment of wages. Since the recent depression began in Shanghai, unemployment constitutes another knotty problem which is almost beyond the Government's power to solve. Thus Chinese labor's future during the wartime is not altogether bright, for after all, the workers' hopes and interests cannot be fulfilled until the Chinese war of resistance is crowned with success.

## *National Defense Policies*

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### **SUSPENSION OF 8-HOUR DAY ON CONSTRUCTION OF LEASED AIR BASES <sup>1</sup>**

HOURS of employees engaged in the construction of air bases acquired from the British Government, by lease, will not be limited to 8 per day, under the terms of an Executive order promulgated on December 31, 1940. The President's action was taken because of the present emergency.

Under the terms of existing legislation (section 1 of the act of August 1, 1892, 27 Stat. 340, as amended by the act of March 3, 1913, 37 Stat. 726, U. S. C., title 40, sec. 321) the service of all laborers and mechanics employed by the Government upon any public work of the United States, and of all persons employed by the Government to perform services similar to those of laborers and mechanics in connection with dredging or rock excavation in any river or harbor of the United States, is limited to 8 hours in any 1 calendar day except in case of extraordinary emergency.

The need for suspending the 8-hour limitation in this instance arises from the isolation of the areas from sources of labor supply in the United States. Without lengthening hours, it appears impossible to accomplish the work necessary to the establishment of the aviation and other Army and Navy facilities within the time required by the interests of the national defense. The application of the 8-hour limitation would involve such a departure from local labor practices and regulations as would be likely to affect adversely the local labor situation, the order also states.

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### **EXPANSION OF AIRCRAFT INDUSTRY TO MEET WAR DEMANDS**

By JOHN J. CROSTON, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

UNFILLED orders of the aircraft industry were well over \$3,500,000,000 on December 1, 1940. United States Army contracts had all been awarded, but the Navy had still to contract for some hundreds of the planes which it will buy, and further extensive orders were expected from Great Britain. At the beginning of 1939, back-

<sup>1</sup>Federal Register, January 3, 1941.

logs of orders for both air frames and airplane engines were under \$200,000,000. By September 1939, the accumulated orders, most of which were from Great Britain and France, amounted to about \$400,000,000, whereas on January 1, 1940, the total had risen to \$621,900,000. It was estimated that by January 1, 1941, the total would have increased to over \$3,700,000,000—six times the level of the preceding year.

This enormous amount of orders has created a number of extremely serious problems, including (1) the necessity for tremendous expansion of floor space and equipment for manufacturing, and (2) the necessity of hiring and training requisite personnel.

### *Government Assistance for Plant Construction, Expansion, or Equipment*

It is estimated that in order to meet the new demand for planes, the aircraft industry will have to more than double its plant facilities. Although normal orders, by themselves, are usually sufficient incentive for companies to expand their plants with private funds, the present huge orders are of such magnitude that few companies are in a position to expand independently within the time desired. In consequence, both the French and British Governments, and more lately the United States Government, have provided a great deal of the money required for plant expansion. The British Government has made capital loans of unstated amounts to the Bell, Curtiss-Wright, Douglas, Lockheed, Martin, and Vultee companies. The United States Government has already advanced some \$182,627,571 for the expansion of the aircraft industry.

### *Location of the Aircraft Industry*

*Air frames.*—The major part of the plant capacity to produce air frames is found along the Pacific coast. Approximately 60 percent of the air-frame workers are employed in this area. It is likely, however, that this geographical concentration will not continue for long. Because of the desire of military authorities to locate vital industries in places more easily protected, there is an increased tendency for new factories to be built in the interior of the United States rather than near the seacoasts.

*Air engines.*—The engine industry is concentrated on the Eastern Seaboard. The present output of engines is derived principally from two plants, one at Paterson, N. J., and the other at East Hartford, Conn. Two smaller plants are in Pennsylvania, at Williamsport and Pottstown, and another plant is on Long Island. There is a small output from southern California. Military motors are now produced in the interior only at Indianapolis. A huge plant to build Wright



engines is now under construction at Cincinnati, and it is probable that the Studebaker company, at South Bend, Ind., also may enter the engine-manufacturing industry. On the Canadian border, the Ford, Packard, and Continental companies will soon be in large-scale production, and there is a possibility that they will soon be joined by the Buick company.

*Propellers.*—Propeller manufacturing is also concentrated in the Eastern States. Two companies have propeller plants in Connecticut, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

### *Expansion of Floor Space for Manufacture*

Financed by the huge sums advanced by the United States Government, the British Government, and private sources, military-aircraft manufacturers have begun to enlarge existing plants and to build new plants. It should be noted that approximately 100 square feet are required per worker for airplanes and approximately 150 square feet for air-engine manufacture.

### *Future Labor Requirements*

Interest here is focused on the labor aspects of this huge program of plant expansion. To execute contracts for \$3,500,000,000 worth of military aircraft will require a greatly increased labor force.

A number of estimates of future labor requirements have been made. Many are pure guesses, and all are subject to a wide margin of error. The figures presented here are for the most part derived from confidential reports from individual manufacturing companies. The reports of these companies show the number of each model to be made each month and the man-hours of work required to make each model. From these data have been estimated the man-hours which must be applied each month to fulfill the scheduled operations.

The magnitude of the expansion required may be seen by contrasting the total employment in the industry in October 1940 with the estimated total employment for August 1941, when according to present commitments of manufacturers, the peak of employment will be attained. In October 1940, it is estimated, there were 203,600 workers engaged in making air frames, air engines, and propellers. By August 1941, it is estimated that the number will be 455,500 workers. In other words, if the industry is to be able to deliver according to schedule, it will have to hire and train a quarter of a million new workers by August 1941.

Although it has been estimated that the peak of employment will probably be reached during the month of August 1941 with a total of 455,500 in air-frame, engine, and propeller plants, this is a very conservative figure. It should be pointed out that another 100,000

workers are not included in this total, since no schedules of employment could be obtained. This number includes workers engaged in manufacturing accessories and nonmilitary aircraft and engines, as well as those in the two plants under construction, the Wright Aeronautical Corporation at Lockland, Ohio, and the Ford Motor Co. at Dearborn, Mich. This gives a total employment estimate of 555,500 for August 1941.

### *Potential Additions to Present Program*

The estimates arrived at above are based on the present program only. Because of indications that the United States and Great Britain jointly will order 24,000 more bombers, the parts for which will be made as far as possible with the existing facilities of the automobile industry, this total labor requirement probably will be much below the actual employment.

It is considered probable that 16,000 of the proposed additional planes will be medium 2-engine bombers and that 8,000 will be large 4-engine bombers. Assuming that production could be started by midsummer and continue for 2 years, there would be an average of 308,000 workers (based on a 40-hour week) at air-frame factories or subassembly plants. Under this proposed program, much of the work now done at final assembly plants would be done by subcontractors.

The 24,000 additional bombers would require the installation of 64,000 high-power engines, with 48,000 engines in reserve, a total of 112,000 engines. If produced in 2 years, an output of about 4,700 engines per month would require about 70,000 workers (based on present working hours).

To equip 112,000 engines would require at least the same number of propellers, together with a proportionate quantity of accessories, so that perhaps 50,000 more workers (based on present working hours and a 2-year program) would be needed in these branches of the industry.

To further this second program, two new assembly plants are now under consideration—one at Kansas City which would employ 12,000 workers, and the other at Omaha which would employ 17,000 workers. The former plant would take the subassemblies or completely assembled sections of medium bombers and the latter similar parts for large bombers. Sites for several other similar plants are now in the process of investigation.

There is a strong probability that two new aircraft-engine plants will be approved. These plants would employ a total of more than 24,000 workers, excluding those employed on subcontracts.

The magnitude of the proposed program is such that many workers now engaged in the manufacture of automobiles for civilian use will necessarily be transferred to aircraft work. To meet the needs of the program, models of bombers and their parts have been delivered to Detroit, and manufacturers of automotive material, from the biggest units to the smallest shops, are bidding upon the pieces that they are best equipped to make.

### *Location of New Jobs in the Aircraft Industry*

It is possible to be fairly definite about the greater part of the quarter of a million of new workers who will have to be added to the industry by August 1941. Seventy-five percent of these, or about 190,000 workers, will be required at the site of final assembly. Little can be said at this time of the location or the character of the 61,000 workers who will be required in plants working on subcontracts taken from the original contracting aircraft firms, as the identity of these plants is not known. There is knowledge, however, of the percent of the work which each firm contracts out to others. These percentages now range from 1 to 32 percent in air frames and from 15 to 70 percent in engines. In the future, subcontracting percentages are expected to range from 4 to 40 percent in air frames, but in the production of engines no substantial change is anticipated.

### *Labor Requirements by Occupation*

Merely to estimate the number of employees which will be required to meet orders for planes is insufficient; it is necessary also to examine the skills which are needed in airplane manufacture. The Bureau of Labor Statistics is now engaged in making studies at the individual plants to determine the number of employees and types of skills which will be required under the present program.

However, on the basis of a field study made in June 1939 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it is estimated that in the air-frame industry skilled workers comprise 41.3 percent of the total; semi-skilled, 46.5 percent; unskilled, 7.7 percent; and others (including clerical), 4.5 percent. In the engine industry, 37.4 percent of the workers are skilled, 46.6 are semiskilled, 9.9 percent are unskilled, and 6.1 percent include clerical and other.



## Foreign Wartime Policies

### WARTIME ACTIVITIES AND CONDITIONS IN CANADA

#### *Wartime Wage Policy*<sup>1</sup>

UNDER order in council P. C. 3495 of November 7, 1939, the Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act was extended to cover all disputes between employers and employees in war work.<sup>2</sup> Because of difficulties of applying this law in certain cases, the Governor General in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Labor, approved certain principles of wartime wage policy for the guidance of Conciliation Boards, established under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act. The most significant of these principles would seem to be the one approving the use of a flat cost-of-living bonus instead of wage increases to meet rising living costs. The full list of the principles referred to is as follows.

(1) Minimum wage standards fixed by Provincial law or regulation shall be considered as minimum standards only.

(2) Wage rates fixed and in effect at the date hereof should not be decreased because of any principle laid down in this order.

(3) Wage-rate levels determined by practice or agreement in any trade or industry, nationally or locally, in the period 1926-29, or higher levels fixed thereafter but prior to December 16, 1940, shall be regarded as generally fair and reasonable, except that in cases in which it is obvious that exceptional circumstances in that period "resulted in depressed and subnormal, or unduly enhanced or abnormal, wages in a particular industry, trade, or locality, a board may adjust such rates to what it considers fair and reasonable under such circumstances."

(4) When it is shown to the board's satisfaction that the 1926-29 wage levels, if restored, would be higher than the existing prevailing rates, such board shall accept as reasonable that wage increases granted in any calendar year shall not be more than 5 percent of the prevailing rates.

(5) To assure the wage earners that, although they are called upon to share in the sacrifices which the war may require from the whole nation, their basic standard of living will not suffer because of in-

<sup>1</sup> Canada Gazette, Extra, No. 61 (Ottawa), December 19, 1940.

<sup>2</sup> See Monthly Labor Review, August 1940.

evitable increases in living costs, "a wartime cost-of-living bonus, independent of basic wage rates, may properly be paid." In determining such a bonus, the following considerations should be taken into account:

(i) Changes in the cost of living should be measured by the new cost-of-living index prepared by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics in cooperation with the Department of Labor and the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, with such adjustments as regional requirements might indicate to be justified.

(ii) The bonus should be determined at intervals not more frequently than quarterly and paid in the first instance only if the cost of living has risen by as much as 5 percent since August, 1939, or since the time of any wage increase subsequent to that date; thereafter the bonus should be adjusted only if the cost of living has risen by 5 percent or more since the last previous determination of a bonus payment; the bonus should be decreased only in case the cost of living has decreased by 5 percent or more since the last previous determination of a bonus.

(iii) Bonus should be a flat amount per hour or per week, uniform for all workers, and calculated to protect the worker against increases in the cost of basic necessities of life.

(6) Under war conditions the pressing need for greater volume and speed of production justifies special provisions for shifts and working hours. These changes should be effected by mutual agreement and should be understood as applicable only to the emergency period. The health and safety of the workers are to be safeguarded.

(7) In continuously operating industries or those which cannot be operated on three shifts with success, it should in any event be arranged that the worker shall have at least one day's rest in 7 and such additional days of rest as may be required to maintain a proper proportion of hours of rest to hours of work. Furthermore, wherever these arrangements are effected, adjustment should be made in order that the payment of rates for overtime may meet the situation in a reasonable way for both employers and employees.

(8) Whenever, in the interest of production for war, any suspension of any existing working condition that has been established by agreement or practice is effected, it shall be provided in the arrangement for such suspension that if the workers so desire, the previously existing condition shall be restored fully and without modification on the termination of the emergency.

(9) The Registrar of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act is charged with the duty of recording "such suspensions or departures from trade practices during the war with a view to facilitating measures to restore the same after the war as may be required."

### *The Question of Labor Supply*<sup>3</sup>

On November 28, 1940, in the House of Commons the Minister of Labor reviewed the Canadian labor situation. Some of his remarks

<sup>3</sup> Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), December 1940.

on the training program and the matter of labor requirements are given below:

#### EXTENSION OF TRAINING PROGRAM

In the summer of 1940 every one of the 64 Dominion technical schools having the required equipment and instructors was being utilized for promoting training of the young people of the country in war work.

In the fall of 1940 the annual training rate was over 26,000 and this number is constantly on the increase.

Four months of training is the average afforded young Canadians to get an education which will constitute the basis of the technical work which they are called upon to do. This training falls into two major classifications: (1) The training given in the aircraft mechanics' course; (2) the training for service in the war industries.

#### DETERMINING LABOR REQUIREMENTS

In discussing the following three major sources from which labor demands must be met, the Minister of Labor said:

1. The demand from the recruiting services, such as defense, the naval and air services, will be enlisting men. The total number of men to be enlisted during the next 6 months' period, the skilled occupations necessarily included, and the number of men in each is [are] being ascertained.

2. The demand from Government agencies giving civilian employment. Men will be taken on for work in the arsenals, shipyards, the construction of airports, and other direct employment under the Government. The total number and the requirements in the skilled trades for the next 6 months is [are] made available to the committee by the departments concerned.

3. The third demand, namely from Government contractors and subcontractors, is no doubt the greatest of the three. The matter of enticing of skilled labor by employers, which, if allowed to continue, would have produced a chaotic situation in industry, has already been dealt with by order in council on the recommendation of the committee. The labor needs, more especially for skilled workers, of all firms on Government contracts are being ascertained and placed before the committee. These returns give the skilled occupations and the numbers required in each for the next 6 months or until present commitments are completed.

The Interdepartmental Committee on Labor Coordination has been engaged in determining the existing labor reserve. Potential sources of labor are being followed up to ascertain the number and location of the needed workers who are available. This is being accomplished through trade-unions, provincial employment services, and national registration cards as they become available.

#### CONSERVATION AND INCREASE OF LABOR SUPPLY

The Minister of Labor reported the following steps being taken by the Interdepartmental Committee on Labor Coordination to conserve and augment the labor supply:



(1) Endeavoring to insure that men in the requisite occupations should not be recruited without necessity.

(2) Apprenticeship, in general, covers too long a period to allow of any significant rise in the number of skilled workers in the emergency. Intensive instruction, however, may hasten the completion of courses.

(3) The preemployment training in technical schools is referred to above. In the fall of 1940, a study of the public schools was being made to find out whether the training is being directed to the scarce trades; whether theory is not being unduly stressed; whether the men are being trained in a short range of skills rather than in all the skills of an occupation; whether training facilities are being used in shifts in order to cover the maximum number of persons; and whether there is proper cooperation with local industry for use of equipment in plants. It was expected, also, to determine the number of student graduates and the time of their graduation.

(4) Government contractors with proper facilities, as a condition of their contracts, may be called upon to train specified numbers of workers in scarce trades. "This training should take the form of upgrading. Jobs should be broken down, and the trained mechanics should do only the most skilled part of the work." The remains of the job should be divided among a few others closest in line to the mechanic, each of whom should be trained in a few weeks to do his part of the job. Other workers behind them should take their places and this procedure should go on through the plant. New employees should be hired for the more simple processes and moved up as rapidly as their abilities and the circumstances warrant.

A survey is being made on plant training facilities in the required occupations, as to instructors available, measures for increasing their number, and the number of trainees who may be graduated in a designated period. This investigation will first cover war industries and will be extended to other industries if it is considered advisable.

(5) To meet the need for skilled workers in the navy, army, and air force, the arsenals and shipyards must endeavor to upgrade men as industry is required to do.

(6) Provision must be made to facilitate the transfer of available workers to localities where they can be placed.

(7) A survey has been started to ascertain the number and locations of employees in the scarce trades at present connected with nonessential or depressed industries who could be recruited for work on Government contracts.

(8) The extent to which women may be substituted for men on war work should the need arise is being considered with a view to providing for their training. As men are upgraded into more skilled jobs many women might be hired for jobs at lower levels. In the same way, in

nonwar industries, skilled men could be released for war establishments and in many plants women could be taken on to fill their places.

(9) A survey is being conducted to secure a list of the nonessential industries employing labor in the scarce trades and to ascertain the number of such workers in these industries. It may become necessary to take away the right of such industries to hire any additional men needed in the essential occupations and also to transfer some of their skilled workers to war industries.

The Interdepartmental Committee on Labor Coordination has been considering the training of older people.

### *Guarding the Workers' Health*<sup>4</sup>

Dominion health authorities are making more intense efforts for the maintenance of the health of factory workers through the wide dissemination of information regarding hazards connected with many manufacturing processes. The Industrial Hygiene Division of the Department of Pensions and National Health, Ottawa, is bringing out for the use of employers and employees a series of pamphlets concerning occupational hazards such as poisonous gases, which result from certain processes, and is endeavoring to anticipate health risks as industry speeds up in the face of war.

It is proposed to supplement these pamphlets with posters. This material will be distributed through the Provincial departments of health as well as from the central office of the Department of Pensions and National Health. All the pamphlets and posters issued in this safety drive will be free to any person interested in industrial health, and inquiries from workers will be especially welcome.

The first of the series of booklets, now available for distribution, treats of benzol (benzene) poisoning, to which workers in a number of industries, including airplane doping, may be subject. "Benzol is obtained by distillation of coal tar and by recovery from coke over gas, illuminating gas, crude petroleum of certain types, and from 'cracking' of crude petroleum." Among the methods of preventing hazards in this connection are the use of ventilating equipment in plants in which benzol might be a factor, protective clothing, gas masks, and careful reporting on the symptoms of workers in these plants.

The first industrial-hygiene bulletin in the series also deals with industrial fatigue. Booklets on various other industrial hazards will be issued as rapidly as possible, and the department is very anxious to have employers and industrialists confer with government departments of health with regard to suggestions relating to improvement of plant conditions.

<sup>4</sup> Trades and Labor Congress of Canada. Canadian Congress Journal (Ottawa), November 1940.

The Department of Pensions and National Health is playing a significant wartime part in various fields, and acts as consultant in industrial hygiene to departments of war, large munition factories, and other important enterprises.

Emphasis is being placed, in the literature and consultations of the Division of Industrial Hygiene, on "the ultimate loss entailed in overwork and unscientific distribution of labor, as well as on the possible sacrifice of efficiency to concentrated effort and haste."

Included in the Division's particular contributions to Canada's wartime activities have been the development of a method of measuring TNT in air, and the making of a number of surveys of establishments, including Canadian arsenals.

#### *War Technical and Scientific Development Committee*<sup>5</sup>

The National Research Council of Canada has received \$1,050,000 from certain citizens and is largely extending its activities. The supervision of this fund has been delegated to the War Technical and Scientific Committee, appointed by order in council.

The details of the work of the committee are, of course, held confidential, but it is reported that the funds at its disposal are to be directed to "the development of up-to-date war apparatus of all kinds, for advanced aeronautical study, and for the furtherance of medical and physiological research upon men engaged in mortal combat. Advanced study in wartime application of physics, chemistry, and engineering is also being conducted."

Among the donations received by the council are those from the T. Eaton Co., the Bronfman brothers of Montreal, the International Nickel Co. of Canada, Ltd., the Canadian Pacific Railway Co., and the Consolidated Mining & Smelting Co.

The Dominion has also assumed the responsibility for certain research work which could not be done with facility in England at this time. It is probable that Canada will play an increasing part in these activities. This taking on of additional duties in this connection will not be so difficult because of the active cooperation in recent years between the Dominion and the United Kingdom—Canadian scientists have worked abroad and British scientists have studied with the Research Council in the Dominion. Dr. R. H. Fowler, professor of physics at Cambridge, has been stationed in the Dominion for the war period to serve as liaison officer for the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research of Great Britain.

<sup>5</sup> The Canadian Manufacturers' Association, Industrial Canada (Toronto), November 1940.



## *Agricultural and Migratory Labor*

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### INTERSTATE MIGRATION OF DESTITUTE CITIZENS

THE causes underlying the mass migration of millions of United States citizens, and the social and economic needs arising from this movement, were the subject of an investigation by a select committee of the House of Representatives, which began in July 1940. A preliminary report issued by the committee deals with the scope of the migration problem and the causes of migration, and summarizes the recommendations made by witnesses before the committee.<sup>1</sup>

#### *Problems of Migration*

Although migration has always been a conspicuous factor of American life, it is only since the depression starting in 1929 that the movement of large numbers of persons in search of work has become a problem of major importance. It is quite generally assumed that the immediate origins of most of these people are agricultural; but, as a matter of fact, all studies indicate that the greater number of migrants originate in urban communities. These migrants are not necessarily destitute, but in order to understand the ways in which moving people become destitute, it was necessary to study the migratory movements of people in general. The study, therefore, covered both the migrants who move in search of permanent situations and those who follow seasonal occupations.

During the past decade, the troubles of the moving population have been so severe as to overtax both public and private agencies, many of which had to face this problem for the first time and were not equipped to meet the demands made upon them. Between 1933 and 1935, only the Federal transient program under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration was directly concerned with aid to the migrant. It was first designed to care for unattached homeless individuals, and only later came to handle the moving family group.

There was widespread public resistance in areas where Federal assistance to transients was thought to exceed the relief available for local residents. It was also charged that migration was being encouraged and a new class of transients being created. However, this popular

<sup>1</sup> United States Congress. House of Representatives. Select Committee to Investigate the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens (76th Cong., 3d sess.). Preliminary Report. Washington, 1941.

impression has been disproved by the testimony of administrators from all fields of relief and public assistance, who were generally agreed that the great majority of the migrants were genuinely in search of new opportunities and were ready and willing to work.

There are at least 40 Government agencies, it is stated in the report, which in some way are involved in the problems of migration. These agencies include, among many others, the Farm Security Administration and other bureaus of the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Labor, the Federal Security Agency, the Public Health Service, the Office of Education, the National Youth Administration, and the Civilian Conservation Corps.

The primary purpose of the Farm Security Administration was to assist the poor-farmer group, especially the tenant, and its program for the relief of the agricultural laborer or the person seeking a new settlement was an incidental development. Its program of rural-rehabilitation loans has enabled many thousands of families to become reestablished in new locations and also has been a means of holding on the land families which would otherwise have been forced to migrate. Migrant camps established by the FSA in California and Arizona have stimulated the demand for similar camps in Texas and Florida, and these are now being established. Many of the migrants in these States, however, do not remain within the State; an increasing number of Florida migrants follow the crop seasons north along the Atlantic coast, and similar movements are developing in other sections.

The growing industrialization of agricultural production has eliminated nearly half the Nation's farm operators from effective participation in the commercial markets. This lower one-half of the farm operators of the country is the source of the growing body of landless agricultural laborers.

Under the national defense program, agencies not ordinarily concerned with the question find that the problems of migration impinge upon their work. "For example, the national defense involves the War and Navy Departments in large-scale migrations to defense plants, navy yards, arsenals, and cantonments. The problem of males, ages 21 to 35, who are without even temporary residence, is important to the Selective Service Administration. Within the National Defense Advisory Commission, the Labor Division and the Agricultural Division are especially concerned with labor mobility."

### *Scope of the Problem*

Among the various experts testifying before the committee there was general agreement that the problem is national in scope. It was considered that the problem is of such magnitude that the States are not capable, within their limited resources and in view of their neces-

sarily limited contact with and grasp of the problem, either of meeting the immediate situation or of planning future remedies.

Although the increase in the volume of migration in recent years has been at a rate far beyond a normal and desirable level, precise measurement of the size of the migrant population has not been undertaken. Such information is lacking not only because there is no adequate machinery for securing it, but also because of the confusion which exists as to the term "migrant" itself. For example, if only persons crossing State lines were regarded as migrants, many would be eliminated who legitimately might be classified as such.

Data from the 1930 census furnish some indication of the volume of interstate migration. At the time of that census, 23 percent of the entire native-born population, or about 25,000,000 persons, were living in States other than those in which they were born. Figures on the movement to and from farms indicate that about 3,000,000 persons are engaged in this movement each year, and that over a million farm families annually leave one farm for another.

Figures published by the Social Security Board in connection with the old-age and survivors' insurance system showed that in 1937, 2,300,000 persons, or 7 percent of the total number of all claimants covered, moved across State lines (agricultural workers and certain other groups, it should be remembered, are not covered by the system). Of this number a large proportion were near the line of destitution, more than half of them receiving less than \$700 in taxable wages.

These figures indicate that the estimate of 4,000,000 migratory workers, both urban and agricultural, made by the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, is not an exaggeration. Drought-stricken regions in the past few years have greatly added to the migratory group, while at present the national defense program has accelerated the migration of urban workers.

Migratory workers may be divided into two classes—(1) seasonal and casual workers who move continually from job to job may be termed constant migrants; (2) removal migrants are those who move to relocate their families. The latter group outnumbers by far the group of constant migrants, but because of the more dramatic character of this type of migration, studies of migrants tend to over-emphasize it.

Prior to 1930, the expectation that migration would result in a relatively quick and satisfactory relocation was usually borne out in practice. Since that time, however, the effects of the depression, increasing mechanization, and natural disasters such as drought and soil erosion, have reduced the chances of migrants to find employment stability and permanence of residence.



Unquestionably the migration of agricultural laborers, whether self-induced or resulting from factors beyond the control of the individual, has been an outgrowth of insufficient incomes. "Thrown into an overstocked and disorganized labor market, the migrant's chances of obtaining steady seasonal or casual work, undesirable as this may be from many points of view, are exceedingly low."

Many of the experts testifying before the committee stressed the inadequacy of existing facilities for the efficient placement of migratory workers in available jobs. General conditions which make for intermittent employment, oversupply of labor, and increasing migration affect urban or industrial workers to as great an extent as agricultural workers. "It is imperative, aside from purely humanitarian considerations," the report states, "that the whole problem of decasualizing the labor market be tackled if we are to draw fully upon our available manpower in the national defense effort."

In addition to inadequate incomes and other hardships which the migratory workers suffer, they find difficulty in having their relief needs met because of legal barriers to the granting of public relief; agricultural workers are outside the scope of the social-security legislation and also are not protected by the National Labor Relations Act and the Fair Labor Standards Act. Migrants also suffer from a lack of adequate hospital and medical care, poor housing, and inadequate educational opportunities for their children.

### *Causes of Migration*

The causes of migration have been found by the committee to be primarily economic:

1. Economic causes, especially those arising from depression areas:
  - (a) General unemployment, causing migration to other urban areas in search of jobs or to the land for security;
  - (b) Regional differences in employment, wage levels, and patterns of seasonal labor requirements;
  - (c) High rates of natural population increase in areas of low economic opportunity;
  - (d) Seasonal demands of agriculture for workers;
  - (e) Mechanization of industry and agriculture;
  - (f) Belated flight from stranded areas as national recovery develops.
2. Natural causes in areas subject to drought hazards, soil erosion, plant disease, and insects.

The final result of mechanization of industry, which at first led to expanding employment opportunities in manufacturing establishments, has been a reduction in such opportunities, and in the past decade the same condition has overtaken agricultural labor.

As a result of this mechanization and the national population increase, it may be expected that for several decades to come the number of job seekers, in agriculture as well as in urban industry, will rise. This situation produces areas of

surplus population and declining job opportunities, and stimulates migration in search of new jobs. For many migrants whose job qualifications are limited, these new jobs are nonexistent.

### *Summary of Recommendations of Witnesses*

The committee was not ready to make recommendations at the time of issuance of the preliminary report, but it was believed that a useful purpose might be served by presenting the views of experts and administrators regarding the solution of various phases of the problem.

In regard to labor contracting and transportation, it was felt that high fees and low wages, upon which the labor contractor's operations are based, permitted great abuse of the migrant. In this connection the work of private employment agencies and the advertising used to secure workers were regarded as causes of "waste" migration. By some of the witnesses it was considered that regulation of advertising and stringent policing of labor contracting were desirable, and many of the witnesses advocated extension of the present system of Federal-State employment service.

The migratory-camp program of the Farm Security Administration was commended, and its extension was advocated.

A majority of the witnesses favored increased Federal funds for educational purposes and for the improvement of rural health and housing, and increased emphasis on vocational training.

Inclusion of agricultural workers in the social-security system was advocated by many witnesses, while several called for inclusion under the Fair Labor Standards Act of workers engaged in industrialized agriculture and in agricultural processing.

Extension of the rehabilitation program of the Farm Security Administration, in the opinion of many of the witnesses, would be "an important aid in checking much aimless wandering and possible starvation," although some witnesses regarded these efforts as primarily stop-gap measures.

Regarding settlement laws and Federal aid for general relief, there was no uniformity of opinion among the experts appearing before the committee. In some cases it was recommended that there should be an attempt to obtain uniform settlement laws in the various States, while others felt that the abolition of these laws would be desirable. There was general agreement that adequate care for migrants could not be achieved without a general strengthening of the entire relief program.

## SOUTHERN INTERSTATE CONFERENCE ON MIGRATORY LABOR

A CONFERENCE sponsored by the labor commissioners of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, was held in Atlanta, Ga., in December 1940<sup>1</sup> and brought together about 200 representatives of the State departments of labor, education, health, public welfare, and agriculture; representatives from corresponding Federal agencies; and officials of labor, farm, and civic organizations.

The migration of workers with their families in search of jobs which often fail to materialize is responsible for many acute problems of housing, health, sanitation, and child labor. The conference, which was called for the purpose of devising measures to meet these problems, made certain recommendations which are summarized below.

### *Problems Relating to Recruitment of Labor*

In relation to employment and recruiting of labor in defense industries and in agriculture and other seasonal employment, it was recommended that advance information on job opportunities should be compiled and kept current in the regional offices of the Bureau of Employment Security and should be immediately available to State and local employment offices. Such information, developed on a national scale for seasonal and fluctuating employments as well as defense industries, would enable the local employment offices to advise applicants of employment opportunities and thus reduce wasteful and costly "blind migration." Such a program should be undertaken with the full cooperation of organized labor and industry and should have sufficient funds to carry it out.

It was considered that all private employment agents, agencies, and labor contractors operating across State lines should be subject to Federal licensing, and interstate job advertising should be regulated in order to prevent fraudulent misrepresentation of job opportunities, exorbitant fees, and other illicit and speculative traffic in human labor. The enactment by Congress of the bill drafted for the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities for the regulation of interstate operation of private employment agencies and labor contractors was advocated, as was also the enactment of uniform State laws to license and control intrastate operation of private employment agencies.

The extension of State and Federal labor and social-security laws to cover all workers now excluded was recommended.

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<sup>1</sup> Press release (No. 1896) issued by Interstate Conference on Migratory Labor.



### *Health and Housing*

Since the large-scale migration of workers creates problems of health, sanitation, medical care, hospitalization, and housing which have been accentuated by the development of the military establishment and defense industries, it was recommended that an adequately staffed and equipped health department should be maintained in every area in which there is a defense project, that its duties should include medical care for migrant workers and their families, and that a housing program should be developed at once for workers attracted to Federal defense projects. Such facilities should be available wherever there is a congregation of migrants in agriculture or industry, and Federal funds should be provided for State health departments under the terms of the Social Security Act. The appropriation of additional funds to provide decent housing for low-income farm families and the continuation and expansion of the migratory-labor housing program of the Farm Security Administration, as well as other measures for the rehabilitation and resettling of farm families, were recommended. Also, housing and sanitary regulations similar to the best type of State regulations for tourist camps should be adopted for, or made applicable to, the shelter of migratory and seasonal workers.

### *Public Assistance for Migrants*

It was considered that the location of defense projects in the Southeastern States, involving the clearing of large areas for cantonments and air bases, as well as the continuing agricultural migration, would bring large-scale migration to these areas in the immediate future, and that public-assistance programs should be developed and adequately financed to meet the considerable need of assistance for needy migrants and their families. These States should receive Federal grants-in-aid similar to the public-assistance grants under the social-security program for general relief, and for migrants who had not acquired residence in a State the full cost of assistance should be met by the Federal Government. Greater uniformity and liberalization of the settlement laws which now bar needy migrants from various forms of public assistance was urged, as well as closer coordination among State, local, and Federal programs of health, education, and recreation services, without discrimination on grounds of residence. It was also recommended that the attention of both Federal and State governments should be directed toward preventing the stranding of workers as sections of the defense program are given up.

*Problems Relating to Children*

Since educational opportunities for children will be lacking in certain areas and communities expanding as a result of the defense program, it was recommended that Federal aid be made available so that States and local educational authorities may adequately meet these needs.

As conditions surrounding employment of children in industrialized agriculture, in which most migratory child labor is found, differ greatly from those of children working at home on their parents' farms, it was recommended that a 14-year minimum age for employment in industrialized forms of agriculture and a 16-year minimum for employment during school hours should be fixed.



## AGRICULTURAL LABOR-CONTRACTOR SYSTEM IN CALIFORNIA

AN IMPORTANT factor in the migratory-labor problem in a number of the Western States is the hiring of seasonal workers by agricultural-labor contractors who habitually move or transport persons across State lines. A report on the labor-contractor system, particularly as it affects California<sup>1</sup> was presented at hearings of the Tolan Committee<sup>2</sup> in San Francisco. This system, as practiced in such States as California, Arizona, Oregon, Washington, Utah, and Idaho, it is said, has a direct bearing upon the interstate migration of destitute people. Although exact data are lacking as to the number of such contractors in California and the number of persons who follow them in the course of their operations, the numbers in both cases are believed to be larger than have been generally supposed.

Definite patterns of migration within particular States, which form part of the larger interstate movement of population, have been established by these contractors, and even when the activities of the contractors are restricted to a single State, they serve as a contributing factor to the general problem of interstate migration, since they attract many migrants from without the State. The operations of the contractors also affect the efficiency of the public employment offices to a considerable degree. Through the operations of the labor contractors, certain areas become overcrowded during seasonal agricultural operations, with a consequent disruption of the local labor market, of local wage structures, and of local price conditions. By

<sup>1</sup> California. Division of Immigration and Housing. Testimony of Carey McWilliams before the Tolan Committee, at San Francisco, Calif., September 25, 1940. [Sacramento?], 1940.

<sup>2</sup> U. S. Congress, House of Representatives, Select Committee Investigating the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens.

the very nature of their operations, these contractors have no interest in the relation of the actual labor needs of a given locality in a particular season to the local labor supply.

The labor-contractor system in California originated in the use of alien racial minority groups in agriculture, particularly the Chinese and Japanese, many of whom did not speak the English language and were largely dependent upon leaders in their own groups who did speak English. There was a natural tendency among such workers to associate together and to seek through such association the solution of their problems. In this way they became peculiarly dependent on their own leaders, who, in many instances, were labor contractors. Other factors which favored the development of the contractor system in the early days were the limited transportation and camp facilities, the lack of public employment services, and the fact that workers needed guidance to find employment from crop to crop, from area to area, and from season to season—a service which the labor contractor, because of his experience, was able to give.

### *Present Labor-Contract System*

Although the use of alien immigrant labor in California has definitely decreased, there is hardly an important agricultural area in the State in which labor contractors do not operate. The prevalence of the system is shown by the fact that there are about 150 labor contractors registered with the State Department of Industrial Relations, while it is known that the number of unlicensed contractors greatly exceeds that of the licensed. The number of workers employed by these contractors varies from as few as 6 to 500 or 600 in numerous instances. It is stated in the report that it is not at all uncommon to find labor contractors in whose camps may be found a hundred or more families, and in one hop camp investigated last year, there were 500 men and approximately 200 women and 100 children.

The area of operations varies considerably among the contractors. Some restrict their operations to a single locality, but many follow a definite pattern of migration from year to year, so that they have come to be looked upon by growers as the agencies through which a fixed seasonal labor supply may be recruited. These contractors move from area to area within the State, and in some instances as far as Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and even to Utah, and back.

The system is especially entrenched in those branches of agriculture where the packing, processing, canning, shipping, and refrigeration of products is carried out—where crops are purchased in the field by the canneries or processing concerns which undertake, as part of the contract, to harvest the crop. The contract system operates for



most of the fresh vegetable, fruit, and nut crops as well as for cotton and sugar beets. The majority of the contractors operating in California are Filipinos and Mexicans, and although to a considerable extent these contractors show a preference for employment of members of their own race, in numerous instances many white American workers are employed. Contractors have a virtual monopoly in the harvesting of peas, and in this crop especially many white Americans and "dust-bowl" migrants find employment. This system is widely used also in such crops as asparagus and sugar beets; in the latter crop, arrangement for the use of contractors is usually made in the office of the refinery. The majority of the contractors work for a number of employers, in some cases for as many as 30 or 40, but in a few cases contractors are more or less definitely employed on a year-to-year basis by the large produce firms.

### *Results of the Labor-Contractor System*

From first-hand interviews with growers, agricultural workers, and field men, for the canning, processing, and shipping concerns, it appears, according to the report, that the labor-contractor system has had various unfavorable effects.

Because responsibility is divided between employer and contractor, the tendency has been for the primary employer to shift responsibility more and more to the labor contractor in such matters as workmen's compensation, the maintenance of labor camps and housing, expenses incidental to the recruitment of labor, transportation of workers, etc. In only one district of the State is there any organization of the contractors, with the result that the competition between them is almost as great as that among agricultural workers for jobs. Since there is an entire lack of uniformity in contracts between employers and labor contractors, and in many cases the contracts are not even in writing, the fixing of responsibility becomes difficult if not impossible. The shifting of responsibility between employers and contractors makes for many grave abuses, and the operation of the system has a direct tendency to prevent the organization of workers for the purpose of self-protection. Another factor making for irresponsibility under the system is the fact that not only the workers, but the labor contractors as well, are migratory. The contractors usually have no fixed residence, office or headquarters, and almost without exception maintain no accounts or records. The system lends itself naturally to collusion between primary employers and contractors, and is a means through which blacklisting can be made particularly effective.

The system has a tendency to lower living standards, especially in areas in which the contractors monopolize employment, since in the

effort to get cheap labor the contractors show a preference in employment for those having the lowest living standards, thereby reducing all standards to the lowest common denominator.

Since most labor contractors are entirely without financial resources and cannot finance a pay roll, they are obliged to resort to various credit devices until they, in turn, are paid. As a result, the usual method of payment is by tickets or scrip to be used to purchase commodities at certain stores with which the contractors have made arrangements for credit. This limits the workers to buying in these stores, and also leads to a considerable amount of barter among the workers or to their selling their tickets at a considerable cash discount. Because of the merchant's risk as to repayment, higher prices are commonly charged for purchases by ticket. The contractors are not entirely responsible for these abuses, since there is no standard method by which they themselves are compensated, and in any event their returns are usually not large. However, the workers suffer not only from the methods of wage payment, but from being overcharged by the contractor for various services—transportation (often in unsafe trucks or vehicles), poor camp facilities, failure of work opportunities after being moved into a particular area, and excessive charges for board in cases in which this is furnished.

Perhaps the most serious disadvantages of the system, it is said, are that it offers no opportunity of advancement to the workers; no possibility of steady employment; and no possibility of establishing an employment record through continuity of employment.



## AID TO NEGROES UNDER FSA REHABILITATION PROGRAM

APPROXIMATELY 50,000 Negro families were covered in a survey, made in 1939, of 116,000 typical southern rehabilitation families aided by the rehabilitation program of the Farm Security Administration, Henry A. Wallace, Secretary of Agriculture, reported in an address on September 2, 1940, at the American Negro Exposition at Chicago.<sup>1</sup> "These families had increased their average net worth from \$451 per family to \$752 per family. This was an average net increase of \$300 per family or 66 percent, and a total net gain of \$35,000,000. This \$35,000,000 meant a lot to the communities in which these families lived, to the families themselves, and to the country as a whole."

Through the tenant purchase program, more than 1,000 Negro families have become owners of land. Under this program, developed

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of Agriculture. Press release, Washington, September 2, 1940: Toward National Unity.

under the Bankhead-Jones Act, sufficient money is loaned to a restricted number of farm tenants to enable them to purchase and improve farms of their own. Thus far, only a relatively small number of tenants have been aided.

Other families have been transferred from worn-out hill land and other submarginal regions to so-called "homestead" projects purchased by the Government. Over 1,800 Negro families are living on 31 such farms. These families have been provided with land and with houses and aided in planning the operation of their farms.

These farm programs were overwhelmingly endorsed by Negro farmers. This was due, Mr. Wallace states, to the fact that these programs "have drawn Negroes more into the current of life in their areas. For the first time, many Negroes feel that they have a definite part in a movement for the betterment of all farmers. It had led many Negroes to understand the reasons for their situation, and once the reasons for a situation are understood, plans can be made to do something about it. A man lost in a cave is no longer lost after he sees a glimmer of light."

In Mr. Wallace's contacts with Negro farmers he has been impressed with their lack of bitterness and their hopeful attitude. They do not, he states, "demand that things right themselves in a day or a week." The colored people's knowledge of human nature keeps them from expecting that. They do desire, however, "an honest effort and sympathetic understanding." Given these, they show "remarkable patience and remarkable loyalty."

In the referenda concerning marketing quotas for cotton, the counties having a heavy proportion of Negro farmers also showed a heavy proportion in favor of the FSA rehabilitation program, while the number of those who voted indicated that the majority of colored farmers in the counties went to the polls.



## Negro Workers

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### EQUAL PAY FOR WHITE AND NEGRO SCHOOL TEACHERS

DENIAL of the petition of the Norfolk, Va., Board of Education for review of the Alston case was announced by the United States Supreme Court on October 28, 1940.<sup>1</sup> This denial sustains the decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals, Fourth District, June 18, 1940, that the fixing of the salaries of Negro teachers at rates below those of white teachers of equal qualifications, experience, and duties, on the sole basis of race or color, violates the due-process and equal-protection clauses of the fourteenth amendment.<sup>2</sup> The Negro teacher who lost the original suit took it to the circuit court of appeals, which unanimously reversed the decision of the trial court. The school board of Norfolk then appealed to the Supreme Court. The Norfolk Teachers' Association, composed of Negro school teachers in that city, joined in the suit.

The salary schedule presented as evidence in this case, and cited in the opinion of the appellate court, showed that in the school year, 1939-40, the salaries of Negro teachers having a normal-school certificate ranged from \$597.50 to \$960.10, and those of similarly qualified white teachers from \$850 to \$1,425. The salaries of Negro elementary teachers who were college graduates ran from \$611 to \$960, whereas white teachers with the same educational status were paid from \$937 to \$1,425. The compensation for Negro male high-school teachers was from \$784.50 to \$1,235, while the white male high-school teachers were paid from \$1,200 to \$2,185.

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### EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS OF NEGROES IN MICHIGAN

A SERIES of conferences, in 20 States in which Negro workers are concentrated, is being promoted by the Federal Social Security Board through the United States Employment Service Division. Some of these meetings have already been held. At the Michigan State Conference, attended by various employers, labor representatives, and

<sup>1</sup> *School Board of the City of Norfolk v. Alston* (61 Sup. Ct. 75).

<sup>2</sup> *Alston v. School Board of City of Norfolk* (112 F. 2d 992-997).

other interested persons, which took place in Detroit on October 8, 1940, the present situation of Negro workers in that State in relation to their opportunities for employment was the subject of discussion.<sup>1</sup>

### *Findings of the Committee*

A summary of the report of the conference findings committee is given below:

#### NEGRO POPULATION IN MICHIGAN

In 1930 the Negro population of Michigan numbered 170,000, or 3.5 percent of the State's total population at that date. This was an advance of 182 percent over 1920 and of 251 percent as compared with 1910. According to the United States Census Bureau estimate, the Negro population of the State in 1940 was 210,000.

In the principal industrial sections in the northern parts of the country the population trends indicate that, although the percentage of Negro youth is declining consistently, it is not declining at the same ratio as the percentage of white youth. The numbers of both white and colored youth seem to be still actually increasing, although this rate of increase in general as compared with that of the adult population is apparently slowing down. However, Negro youth appear to be maintaining a larger proportion over the adult Negro population than are the white youth over the adult white population.

The Negroes in Michigan live mainly in certain urban and industrial centers, and 99 percent of them reside in the southern half of the lower Peninsula. Fifteen counties and fourteen cities have 1,000 or more colored people, while 95 percent of all the Negroes in Michigan are concentrated in 28 cities, of which 22 percent are reported to be within 150 miles of Detroit. Negroes are mainly concentrated in the following cities in the order listed: Detroit and its suburbs, Flint, Saginaw, Grand Rapids, Pontiac, Battle Creek, Jackson, Lansing, Ypsilanti, Kalamazoo, Albion, Ann Arbor, Port Huron, Benton Harbor, Muskegon, Muskegon Heights, Monroe, and Dowagiac.

Negro social and economic problems are consequently city problems, but they have State-wide effects.

#### NEGRO WAGE EARNERS

Based on the best available data there are at present some 100,000 Negro wage earners in the State—about 75,000 men and about 25,000 women.

The active file of those seeking work through the public employment offices in Michigan as of April 1940 indicates that of the 217,700 registrants, 21.5 percent were women, and that of the 22,300 Negro registrants 25.5 percent were Negro

<sup>1</sup> Michigan State Conference on Employment Problems of the Negro, Detroit, October 8, 1940. Findings, report, recommendations. Detroit, Michigan State Employment Service, 1940.

women. A comparison of these percentages affords some indication that relatively more Negro than white women regard themselves as wage earners. Further evidence of this was indicated in the 1930 census which showed that in Michigan, 33 of every 100 Negro women as compared with 23 of every 100 [native] white women, worked for a living or supplemented the family income. The census also revealed that of all married Negro women, 25 percent were gainfully employed as compared with 11 percent of native white women.

As compared with white workers, a higher proportion of Negroes is reported in the younger working groups.

The active file referred to above agrees substantially with other data concerning the ages of Negro workers in northern industrial sections. The registration discloses that 57 percent of the Negro applicants were between 25 and 45 years of age, whereas only 46 percent of the white applicants were included in this age group. According to the Detroit Department of Public Welfare, the Negroes on relief in 1937 were "able-bodied and employable to a greater extent than white persons on relief." Moreover only 19 percent of the white relief cases had family heads who were employable, as compared with 41 percent of the Negro relief cases.

#### OCCUPATIONS OF NEGROES

The occupational distribution of Negro workers follows a pattern different from that of white workers. The 1930 census shows a heavy concentration of Negroes in the unskilled, semiskilled, and domestic and personal-service occupations. The active file of the State Employment Service of Michigan shows that 85 percent of the Negro applicants, as against a little over 50 percent of the white applicants, are registered in these occupational groups.

The representation of employed Negroes in Michigan in semiskilled, unskilled, and domestic and personal-service groups was probably not so great in 1940 as it was in 1930. This occupational shift is particularly noted in traditional "Negro jobs," and this is especially the case in some of the unskilled domestic and personal-service occupations. In these fields many colored workers have been displaced by increasing mechanization in both industry and the home and also because of the competition of white workers.

Discrimination by some employers against Negroes seems to be explained in part by a misunderstanding of their employment capabilities. Negroes are employed in practically all occupational capacities by one large automobile manufacturer in the State. The committee's report states that it "is needless to point out that the social and economic implications of discrimination in employment adversely affect not only the Negro worker and his family but the well-being of the State as a whole."



## UNEMPLOYMENT

According to the findings of the conference committee, unemployment is proportionately heavier among colored than among white persons.

Every major census and survey since 1930 indicates that more unemployment exists among Negro workers than among white workers, and, also, that the duration of unemployment is longer among Negroes. The unemployment rate is greater even when such factors as sex, age, occupation, and illness are held constant.

The active file of persons seeking work through the public employment offices of Michigan indicates that 20 percent of all Negro applicants as compared to 7 percent of all white applicants have been unemployed for 4 years or more.

## VOCATIONAL PREPARATION

Opportunities for vocational training are more restricted for Negro youth than for white young people. Discrimination against colored workers by trade-unions bars the possibility of including them in apprenticeship programs conducted cooperatively by groups of employers and unions. Furthermore, apprenticeship programs carried out wholly by employers are generally not available to young Negroes. The only exception in the State is that of the Ford Trade School.

Technical trade courses of the regular schools are not, except in a few outstanding cases, open to Negro youth, apparently on the theory that employers will not hire them even after they are trained.

Vocational counseling and guidance seemed to the committee to be inadequate in both extent and content.

Despite 30 years of effort in this field, the work of the schools is still handled largely by overworked staffs, ill-equipped with both techniques and information. Perhaps no group of young people are more adversely affected by the failure of public schools to provide realistic vocational counseling than the Negro.

The laggard social philosophy of expediency which seems now to control most guidance practices in our schools should be supplanted by a progressive point of view, one which envisions for all workers in general, and for Negro workers in particular, a much more secure place in our economy than now exists.

Vocational guidance of Negro youth should deliberately seek to achieve the individual and social aims of vocational guidance for all youth, and, in addition, to accelerate the trend toward increased integration of Negro workers into all areas of the existing occupational world.

The conference committee found also that discrimination against Negroes had existed in selecting workers for training in connection with defense activities. At the time the report under review was prepared, local school boards in Michigan had not yet released information as to the number of Negro participants in the national defense vocational-training programs, but it seemed quite evident to the committee that preference had been shown for white workers.

## FAMILY DISORGANIZATION AND LIVING CONDITIONS

The insufficient and unstable income of the Negro family is the primary cause of many of its social problems.

It is well known that crime and delinquency are more common among Negroes than in other population groups. This is not an inherent racial factor. There is no question but that much delinquency and crime are bred in the conditions of poverty, overcrowding, and family disorganization, conditions that peculiarly beset the Negro. Likewise, according to the committee, it is certain that the cost to Michigan citizens of protecting themselves against crime and of treating criminals is greater than would be the cost of prevention.

Housing facilities of Negro families in the State are reported as inadequate and substandard. Their living conditions in the present restricted and highly colonized sections in which they live are far below the housing conditions of white families even in the same income group. A recent survey disclosed that 42 percent of the residential units in Detroit within the Boulevard and east of Woodward Avenue were generally substandard. "The situation in Detroit can be paralleled in every other Michigan community in which Negro families are grouped."

The greater incidence of illness among Negroes than among white persons, the committee holds, can be readily explained as directly due to their low income, unemployment, and substandard housing.

*Recommendations*

Among the various recommendations of the conference findings committee was the appointment by the Governor of Michigan of "a nonpartisan commission composed of Negro and white persons to examine the economic and social problems of the Negro workers in this State."

## *Women In Industry*

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### STABILIZING THE MILLINERY INDUSTRY

GAINS in employment and earnings for the employees and increased business and earnings for manufacturers in the New York millinery market were recorded for 1938 and 1939. During this period employers and workers had cooperated in an organized effort to stabilize the industry for the benefit of both. The economic condition of the industry had been singularly unfavorable during the preceding decade, and in 1936 the Millinery Stabilization Commission, Inc., was created by joint agreements between workers' and employers' organizations of New York City and later of New Jersey,<sup>1</sup> for the purpose of formulating and putting into practice plans and policies for the rehabilitation of the industry.

The Millinery Stabilization Commission is an unofficial supervisory and administrative board. It is composed, not of representatives of the parties to the agreements, but of three disinterested citizens,<sup>2</sup> agreed upon by the parties and serving without pay. Its activities are financed by the sale of the "consumers' protection label." The use of this label is granted, on payment of the price thereof, to members who agree to maintain the best working conditions and highest labor standards and to comply with the code of fair trade practices adopted by the commission after extended study and a public hearing. Virtually all the firms in the New York millinery market<sup>3</sup> have entered into such agreements and been licensed to use the label.

The Commission has promulgated a revised code of fair trade practices. It collects statistics of the industry, investigates cases of fraud and takes prompt action thereon, actively promotes sales, and seeks in other ways to promote the interests of the industry. As evidence that conditions in the New York millinery market have improved under the supervision of the commission, the second report

<sup>1</sup> Cap and Millinery Department of the United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union, and the Joint Board of Locals 24 and 42 of that organization, and the Eastern Women's Headwear Association, Inc., The National Association of Ladies Hatters, Inc., and the Millinery Manufacturers of New Jersey, Inc.

<sup>2</sup> The personnel of the Commission in 1940 was as follows: Max Meyer, chairman, Paul F. Brissenden, and Mrs. Richard J. Bernhard.

<sup>3</sup> Except where otherwise indicated, the New York millinery market means the metropolitan New York-New Jersey area under the jurisdiction of the commission, embracing New York City and northern New Jersey.



of the Millinery Stabilization Commission <sup>4</sup> presents data on employment and earnings of workers, and of the business done by and earnings of manufacturers in 1938 and 1939, from which the following are taken. A survey of the conditions in the industry in 1937 was made by the United States Women's Bureau,<sup>5</sup> a summary of which appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for August 1939.

### Employment and Pay Rolls

Since 1936, the year in which the Millinery Stabilization Commission was created, there has been a considerable increase in employment in the industry in the State of New York as compared with employment in the industry as a whole (including New York). This is indicated by the following percentages of annual change in the number of persons employed in the millinery industry in the State of New York and in the United States as a whole: <sup>6</sup>

	New York State	United States
1935 to 1936.....	-3.4	+11.5
1936 to 1937.....	+14.0	+4.0
1937 to 1938.....	+1.0	-2.3
1938 to 1939.....	+15.5	-2.8

The difference in the trends of employment in the State of New York and in the United States from 1936 to 1939 is striking. Since the New York City industry comprises 98 or 99 percent of the industry in the State, and the New York market did more business in 1937 than all other markets combined, the figures for the United States obviously are heavily weighted by the New York data. For the purpose of comparing the trend of employment and pay rolls in the industry in New York State with the rest of the industry the following index numbers are given.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Millinery Manufacture in New York State and in the United States (Excluding New York State), 1935 to 1939

Period	Employment		Pay rolls	
	New York State	Rest of United States	New York State	Rest of United States
1935: January.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1935.....	99.9	96.5	107.1	95.4
1936.....	96.9	97.2	102.7	95.5
1937.....	108.4	105.8	120.6	108.4
1938.....	110.3	112.4	128.1	117.2
1939.....	138.0	107.9	157.4	111.4

<sup>4</sup> Millinery Stabilization Commission, Inc. Second Report. New York, November 1940.

<sup>5</sup> U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bull. No. 169: Conditions in the Millinery Industry in the United States. Washington, 1939.

<sup>6</sup> Data as to employment, pay rolls, and earnings in the commission's report were calculated from published and unpublished data from the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and the New York State Department of Labor; data for New Jersey are not published separately. Data on volume of business and earnings of manufacturers cover the New York market and are from the files of the commission.

These annual index numbers show the very substantial increase made by the New York market both in employment and pay rolls as compared with the rest of the industry—an increase of 38 percent in employment in 1939 in New York as compared with 8 percent for the rest of the industry, and of 57 percent in pay rolls in New York as contrasted with 11 percent in the rest of the industry.

The weekly earnings of New York millinery workers are generally higher than those in other markets. In both New York State and the United States as a whole there was an increase in weekly earnings in 1939 over 1936, as can be seen by the following figures:

	New York State	United States
1936.....	\$22. 64	\$20. 46
1937.....	23. 65	21. 25
1938.....	24. 81	21. 43
1939.....	24. 27	21. 91

### *Sales and Earnings*

An important indication of the general trend of an industry is the amount of business done year by year. From the standpoint of dollar volume of sales, the New York millinery market experienced from 1937 to 1939 an increase in business of 14.5 percent. The trend in volume of business during this period for 198 identical firms is shown in table 2 by the four price ranges familiar in the industry.

TABLE 2.—*Dollar Volume of Sales by Identical New York Millinery Manufacturers, 1937 to 1939, by Price Range*

Price per dozen wholesale	Number of identical firms	Percent of change in volume of business from—		
		1937 to 1938	1938 to 1939	1937 to 1939
All ranges.....	198	+3. 2	+10. 8	+14. 5
\$7.50 and under (range 1).....	50	-5. 4	+19. 0	+12. 9
\$7.51 to \$13.50 (range 2).....	89	+2. 0	+12. 0	+14. 2
\$13.51 to \$24.00 (range 3).....	22	+17. 4	- . 7	+16. 5
Over \$24 (range 4).....	37	+3. 5	+11. 0	+15. 1

Costs are also important in the stabilization of an industry, and the commission presents an analysis of operating costs in the New York millinery market each year, 1936 to 1939. The figures presented in table 3 show, it is said, a high degree of stability in the distribution of costs during the 4 years, the slight increase in cost of doing business being probably caused largely by social security taxes.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Costs (All Price Ranges) in Millinery Manufacture, by Years, 1936 to 1939

Item	1936	1937 <sup>1</sup>	1938	1939
Number of firms reporting.....	199	245	239	225
	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Direct costs: Hat materials, net.....	46.3	46.1	44.9	44.8
Direct labor.....	28.6	26.2	25.8	25.8
Indirect factory labor.....		3.1	2.4	3.0
Blocks and dies.....	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.4
Expressage, parcel post, and carfare.....	2.9	.6	3.3	3.8
Selling costs.....	5.7	6.1	5.7	6.2
Bad debts.....		.3	.4	.4
Taxes, total.....		1.2	1.6	1.8
Old-age insurance tax.....		.4		
Unemployment insurance tax.....		.7	1.5	1.6
Other taxes.....		.1	.2	.2
Administrative expense.....	8.3	10.4	8.0	6.7
Office salaries.....				.9
Cost of doing business.....	93.1	95.4	93.8	94.8
Net profit (including withdrawals).....	6.9	4.6	6.2	5.2
Proprietors' withdrawals and salaries of officers in closed corporations.....	6.6	5.9	6.7	6.6
Book profit (or loss).....	.3	-1.3	-5	-1.4

<sup>1</sup> Figures for this year are from U. S. Women's Bureau Bull. No. 169 (p. 112): Conditions in the Millinery Industry in the United States.

<sup>2</sup> Including indirect factory labor.

<sup>3</sup> Including bad debts, taxes, and office salaries.

<sup>4</sup> Including office salaries.

<sup>5</sup> Excluding office salaries.

The aggregate and average earnings of owners and of productive workers in the New York millinery market in 1938 and 1939 are presented in table 4. The number of firms in each price-range group for which data are shown in table 4 was as follows:

	1938	1939
All groups.....	239	225
Range 1.....	90	79
Range 2.....	99	92
Range 3.....	23	23
Range 4.....	27	31

In general, the percentage increases in workers' average earnings were higher than those in owners' average earnings. The higher percentage increases in both workers' and owners' average earnings were in those groups where the level was lowest in 1938.



TABLE 4.—Aggregate and Average Earnings of Owners and of Productive Workers in the New York Millinery Industry, 1938 and 1939

Price-range group	Aggregate profits <sup>1</sup>		Number of owners		Average owner earnings <sup>2</sup>		Percent of change in earnings, 1938 to 1939
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	
All groups.....	\$1,283,949	\$1,354,424	460	434	\$2,791	\$3,121	+12
Range 1.....	337,121	331,766	166	152	2,031	2,183	+7
Range 2.....	488,771	552,781	180	176	2,586	3,141	+21
Range 3.....	224,188	209,453	49	43	4,575	4,638	+1
Range 4.....	233,869	260,424	56	63	4,176	4,134	-1
	Aggregate paid productive labor		Number of workers <sup>3</sup>		Average labor earnings <sup>4</sup>		Percent of change in earnings, 1938 to 1939
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	
All groups.....	\$5,290,432	\$5,646,628	4,725	4,330	\$1,119	\$1,304	+17
Range 1.....	1,213,636	1,421,983	1,281	1,148	947	1,239	+30
Range 2.....	2,328,702	2,369,182	2,151	1,828	1,083	1,296	+19
Range 3.....	718,579	824,204	530	574	1,356	1,436	+6
Range 4.....	1,029,515	1,031,259	763	780	1,349	1,320	-2

<sup>1</sup> Before owner's withdrawals.<sup>2</sup> Quotient of aggregate profits divided by number of owners.<sup>3</sup> Aggregate number of operators, cutters, trimmers, and slickers and steamers.<sup>4</sup> Quotient of aggregate amounts paid to productive labor divided by number of workers.

## EFFECT OF MINIMUM WAGE IN NEW YORK INDUSTRIES

INCREASED wages for women in the higher wage classifications as well as for the lowest-paid worker have resulted from the introduction of the State minimum wage for women and minors in the beauty-service, confectionery, and laundry industries in the State of New York. The average woman worker in a beauty parlor, for example, earned \$3.32 more in a week in 1940 than she did in 1936 before the minimum wage was introduced. Median wages in the confectionery and laundry industries also increased after the minimum wage became effective in those industries. These facts and the following data were revealed by annual analyses by the New York State Department of Labor of sworn pay rolls for a given week.<sup>1</sup>

### *Beauty-Service Industry*

Median weekly wages of woman workers in beauty parlors in April 1940 were 25 percent higher than in 1936 before there was a minimum-wage law, increasing from \$13.47 in 1936 to \$16.79 in 1940. The increases to the lowest-paid workers had the effect of pushing up the

<sup>1</sup> New York State Department of Labor. The Industrial Bulletin (Albany), July 1940, September 1940, and October 1940.

wages of women in the higher classifications also. Whereas 65 percent of the workers in 1936 earned less than \$15 a week, only 14 percent earned that little in 1940 and more than 41 percent were paid more than the required minimum.

Median hourly earnings increased even more in this 4-year period—from 27.6 cents in 1936 to 39.3 cents in 1940, or more than 42 percent. In 1940 almost all of the workers (98.4 percent) received 35 cents or more an hour, as compared with only 27.4 percent in 1936.

A comparison of weekly and hourly earnings in 1936, 1939, and 1940 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Earnings of Women in Beauty-Service Occupations in New York State, 1936, 1939, and 1940*

Item	Week's earnings			Item	Hourly earnings		
	1936	March 1939	April 1940		1936	March 1939	April 1940
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	5,157	12,594	11,529	Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	5,026	12,562	11,518
Median week's earnings.....	\$13.47	\$16.74	\$16.79	Median hourly earnings (cents).....	27.6	39.2	39.3
Percent with earnings—				Percent with earnings—			
Under \$5.....	10.6	2.4	2.4	Under 10 cents.....	6.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	.....
\$5 and under \$10.....	20.4	6.3	6.1	10 and under 20 cents.....	18.0	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )
\$10 and under \$12.....	11.9	.9	.6	20 and under 25 cents.....	15.9	0.1	.....
\$12 and under \$15.....	22.2	5.2	5.0	25 and under 30 cents.....	19.1	.1	0.1
\$15 and under \$20.....	19.7	66.3	67.0	30 and under 35 cents.....	13.5	2.8	1.5
\$20 and over.....	15.2	18.9	18.8	35 and under 40 cents.....	8.9	56.2	56.2
				40 cents and over.....	18.5	40.8	42.2

<sup>1</sup> Includes 35 male minors in March 1939 and 24 male minors in April 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

These increases in the wages of the workers generally, in the 4-year period, occurred in spite of the fact that the workweek had been shortened 3 hours. The shortening of hours was due to the State law limiting the daily and weekly hours of work of women, as well as to the minimum-wage order. A comparison of the hours worked in 1936, 1939, and 1940 is presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Hours Worked in Week by Women in Beauty-Service Occupations in New York State, 1936, 1939, and 1940*

Item	1936	March 1939	April 1940
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	4,665	12,567	11,520
Median week's hours.....	48.4	45.0	45.0
Percent of women who worked—			
Under 24 hours.....	6.1	9.5	9.2
24 and under 30 hours.....	2.2	3.4	3.6
30 and under 36 hours.....	3.5	1.7	1.3
36 and under 42 hours.....	5.0	7.5	7.7
42 and under 48 hours.....	16.1	62.1	64.3
48 hours.....	16.5	15.3	13.6
Over 48 hours.....	50.6	.5	.3

<sup>1</sup> Includes 35 male minors in March 1939 and 24 male minors in April 1940.

## Confectionery Industry

The experience in the confectionery industry in the State of New York also showed that the minimum wage does not become the maximum wage. A year after the directory order became effective, the median week's earnings had increased from \$15.77 to \$16.06. All classes of workers had benefited. The lowest-paid groups were almost depleted of workers, and even the highest-paid group—those earning \$20 or over a week—had increased from 15 percent to 20 percent.

Hourly rates of wages showed similar increases. In 1939 all but 2 percent of the women received 35 cents or more an hour, as compared with less than 69 percent in 1937. A comparison of weekly and hourly earnings of women in the confectionery industry in 1937 and 1939 is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Earnings of Women in Confectionery Industry in New York State, 1937 and 1939*

Item	Week's earnings		Item	Hourly earnings	
	December 1937	November 1939		December 1937	November 1939
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	4,125	6,699	Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	3,614	6,698
Median week's earnings.....	\$15.77	\$16.06	Median hourly earnings (cents)...	38.2	40.0
Percent with earnings—			Percent with earnings—		
Under \$5.....	3.1	0.7	Under 25 cents.....	6.5	( <sup>2</sup> )
\$5 and under \$10.....	12.6	3.3	25 and under 30 cents.....	9.4	0.4
\$10 and under \$12.....	7.7	4.9	30 and under 35 cents.....	15.4	1.6
\$12 and under \$15.....	20.0	24.9	35 and under 40 cents.....	29.7	48.4
\$15 and under \$20.....	41.9	46.2	40 and under 45 cents.....	14.3	21.2
\$20 and over.....	14.7	20.0	45 and under 50 cents.....	10.7	13.0
			50 cents and over.....	14.0	15.4

<sup>1</sup> Includes some male minors.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The median workweek was the same in both years, 40 hours, but the percentage of women working 48 hours or over in the week was reduced considerably, as may be seen in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Hours Worked During Week by Women in Confectionery Industry in New York State, 1937 and 1939*

Item	December 1937	November 1939
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	3,614	6,698
Median week's hours.....	40.0	40.0
Percent who worked—		
Under 24 hours.....	6.7	2.4
24 and under 32 hours.....	6.7	3.5
32 and under 40 hours.....	16.4	16.2
40 and under 48 hours.....	49.8	71.5
48 hours.....	15.6	5.9
Over 48 hours.....	4.8	.5

<sup>1</sup> Includes some male minors.



### Laundry Industry

In the laundry industry also the legal minimum wage brought increases to woman workers all along the line from the lowest to the highest. Median week's earnings in laundries in Zone A<sup>2</sup> rose from \$14.76 in 1937 to \$15.62 in 1939 and in Zone B<sup>2</sup> from \$12.86 to \$14.44. Median hourly earnings showed a similar trend, increasing from 36.4 cents in 1937 to 38.8 cents in 1939 in laundries in Zone A and from 32.5 cents in 1937 to 34.9 cents in Zone B.

Table 5 shows week's and hourly earnings in laundries in 1937, 1938, and 1939.

TABLE 5.—*Earnings of Women in Laundry Occupations in New York State, November 1937, 1938, and 1939*

Item	Zone A			Zone B		
	1937	1938	1939	1937	1938	1939
<b>Week's earnings</b>						
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	16,015	18,132	18,149	3,650	3,777	3,739
Median week's earnings.....	\$14.76	\$15.53	\$15.62	\$12.86	\$13.70	\$14.44
Percent with earnings—						
Under \$8.....	3.7	2.1	2.1	5.7	1.6	1.2
\$8 and under \$12.....	10.1	3.8	3.2	28.4	4.3	3.5
\$12 and under \$15.....	40.0	32.4	31.1	46.1	71.9	58.0
\$15 and over.....	46.2	61.7	63.6	19.8	22.2	37.3
<b>Hourly earnings</b>						
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	15,649	17,922	18,080	3,620	3,700	3,737
Median hourly earnings (cents).....	36.4	38.6	38.8	32.5	33.7	34.9
Percent with earnings—						
Under 25 cents.....	0.5	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	0.3	—	—
25 and under 30 cents.....	2.5	0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )	25.2	0.5	0.1
30 and under 35 cents.....	36.2	.9	0.2	49.3	66.9	51.4
35 and under 40 cents.....	39.8	68.6	65.7	14.0	20.0	34.7
40 and under 45 cents.....	10.2	16.8	19.5	7.2	7.6	8.1
45 and under 50 cents.....	5.5	6.7	7.3	2.2	3.2	3.0
50 and under 60 cents.....	4.3	5.2	5.6	1.4	1.5	2.5
60 cents and over.....	1.0	1.6	1.7	.4	.3	.2

<sup>1</sup> Includes some male minors.

<sup>2</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Part-time work decreased under the minimum-wage order, the proportion of women having a regular workweek of at least 40 hours being greater in 1939 than in 1938 or in 1937. The hours worked by women in the laundries of New York State in November 1937, 1938, and 1939 are shown in table 6.

<sup>2</sup> Zone A covers New York City and Westchester and Nassau Counties; Zone B includes all places over 18,000 outside Zone A. No data are given for laundries in other places in the State (Zone C) as they have no guaranteed weekly wage, though there is a minimum of 30 cents an hour.

TABLE 6.—Hours Worked During Week by Women in Laundries in New York State, November 1937, 1938, and 1939

Item	Zone A			Zone B		
	1937	1938	1939	1937	1938	1939
Number reporting <sup>1</sup> .....	15,654	17,923	18,080	3,620	3,760	3,737
Median hours worked.....	41.9	42.2	42.1	41.2	40.0	42.0
Percent who worked—						
Under 24 hours.....	3.5	2.7	2.7	4.6	1.6	1.3
24 and under 32 hours.....	4.4	3.2	3.0	7.3	2.9	2.2
32 and under 40 hours.....	23.4	19.2	18.6	28.6	26.3	22.9
40 and under 45 hours.....	48.7	55.9	60.5	40.2	58.4	60.0
45 to 48 hours.....	19.2	18.6	15.1	18.1	10.5	13.5
Over 48 hours.....	.8	.4	.1	1.2	.3	.1

<sup>1</sup> Includes some male minors.

## EARNINGS AND HOURS IN WOMAN-EMPLOYING INDUSTRIES OF HAWAII

AT THE request of the Young Women's Christian Association of Honolulu and other organizations interested in the problems of wage-earning women, a representative of the United States Women's Bureau was sent to Hawaii to collect information for the woman-employing industries as a part of the general survey of the Territory's labor economy made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1939.<sup>1</sup>

The 1930 Census of Occupations reported 17,542 gainfully employed women in Hawaii. The largest group—more than one-third—was in domestic and personal service, which includes household employees, barber girls, beauty-shop operators, laundry workers, and employees in hotels, restaurants, and institutions whose work is of a domestic or personal-service nature. Not far from a third of the women were in the combined professional and clerical groups, and the remaining third included women in agriculture, manufacturing,<sup>2</sup> and trade, and in dressmaking and tailoring not in factories.

The Women's Bureau report<sup>3</sup> covers 195 establishments. In all but 10 of these, men's earnings as well as women's are included. In order to get information on woman office workers and women in the Honolulu motion-picture theaters, earnings were obtained from 10 firms, chiefly public utilities, for the women they employed at clerical occupations, telephone operating, and jobs such as ushering. The

<sup>1</sup> A summary report of this survey was given in 2 articles in the Monthly Labor Review, issues of December 1939 and January 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Includes pineapple canning, additional data for which are given in article on p. 435.

<sup>3</sup> U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bulletin No. 177: Earnings and Hours in Hawaii Women-Employing Industries, by Ethel Erickson. Washington, 1940.

women in these 10 firms, with all the office workers and telephone operators in the factories and stores, have been tabulated as a separate office group.

The number of establishments and of employees covered in the survey is shown, by industry, in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Establishments Visited and Number of Women and Men They Employed, by Industry*

Industry	Num-ber of estab-lish-ments	Total num-ber of em-ployees	Employees in—					
			Occupations other than office and telephone			Office and telephone occupations		
			Total	Wo-men	Men	Total	Wo-men	Men
Total number <sup>1</sup> .....	195	16,806	16,098	8,066	8,002	1,708	496	2,212
Percent distribution.....			100.0	50.3	49.7	100.0	70.1	29.9
Manufacturing.....	23	13,704	13,539	6,744	6,795	165	39	126
Pineapple canning.....	4	12,650	12,506	5,945	6,561	144	30	114
Garments, men's and women's.....	13	277	272	243	29	5	3	2
Other manufacturing.....	6	777	761	556	205	16	6	10
Stores.....	41	969	872	490	382	97	38	59
Honolulu.....	28	815	729	424	305	86	34	52
General merchandise.....	23	713	646	403	243	67	28	39
Drug.....	5	102	83	21	62	19	6	13
Hilo and other places.....	13	154	143	66	77	11	4	7
Laundries.....	14	541	498	328	170	43	32	11
Power.....	5	505	463	312	151	42	31	11
Hand; pressing shops.....	9	36	35	16	19	1	1	—
Barber shops.....	25	68	68	68	—	—	—	—
Beauty shops.....	34	93	93	92	1	—	—	—
Hotels and restaurants.....	48	987	953	299	654	34	18	16
Hotels.....	4	486	453	48	405	33	18	15
Restaurants.....	44	501	500	251	249	1	—	1
Alcoholic.....	32	318	318	164	154	—	—	—
Nonalcoholic.....	12	183	182	87	95	1	—	1
Public utilities, motion pictures, etc....	10	441	75	75	(2)	366	366	(2)

<sup>1</sup> Total includes 2 markets, with 3 woman office workers, not shown separately. It includes also 2 establishments each of which reports in 2 industries.

<sup>2</sup> Number of men in 10 firms not included.

<sup>3</sup> These employees were in 56 firms.

<sup>4</sup> 2 fish canneries, 2 mattress plants, 1 bakery, 1 can factory.

Three-fourths of the employees included in the study were in the pineapple canneries, surveyed during the busy season of 8 to 10 weeks. At other times the cannery employees are only a small part of the total. Two large plants on the island of Oahu and two small ones on Maui comprise the pineapple-cannery group. The manufacture of men's and women's garments (largely sportswear) is considered an important industry in Hawaii, but the individual establishments are small. The two tuna canneries were tabulated as miscellaneous manufacturing. They employ considerable numbers of women, but intermittently, as the work is of an irregular nature.

There are only a few stores employing 50 or more employees on the Islands, but there are innumerable small stores. All but four of the stores included in the survey were small. All the larger power



laundries in the Territory were included in the laundry coverage. The barber shops included were those in which Japanese women were working as operators, and at least one-half of the women employed in this occupation were covered in the study. Beauty shops were visited only in Honolulu, but the coverage was representative of more than half of the shops in which women were employed.

Restaurants and bars, like stores, are found in great numbers. Since there was considerable interest in the employment of women in places serving liquor, these were tabulated separately for restaurants.

Hotels do not employ women so extensively as is customary on the mainland; instead of woman chambermaids, men, in most cases Filipinos, are employed as houseboys and roomboys.

Women are employed to a limited extent on the plantations, but they are not considered an important part of the general economy, and women in agriculture were not covered in the study.

Household employment is one of the primary fields of work for women. Dressmaking offers gainful employment to many Japanese, and the system of apprenticeship gives rise to special problems.

Most of the workers for whom wage and hour data were obtained were employed in Honolulu, but also included were the employees of two pineapple canneries, one tuna cannery, one hotel, and several stores and restaurants on the Islands of Hawaii, Kauai, and Maui.

### Racial Descent

The racial descent of the workers covered is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Racial Descent of Employees in Hawaiian Woman-Employing Industries, by Sex*

Race	Employees with race reported					
	Total		Women		Men	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total.....	16,549	100.0	8,471	100.0	8,078	100.0
Caucasian.....	2,594	15.7	1,402	16.6	1,192	14.8
Chinese.....	2,591	15.7	1,411	16.7	1,180	14.6
Filipino.....	1,703	10.3	171	2.0	1,532	19.0
Hawaiian.....	1,577	9.5	1,073	12.7	504	6.2
Japanese.....	6,870	41.5	3,701	43.7	3,169	39.2
Korean.....	463	2.8	276	3.3	187	2.3
Puerto Rican.....	43	.3	35	.4	8	.1
Other races.....	708	4.3	402	4.7	306	3.8

### Earnings

Earnings for a period in 1939—a week, a half month, or a month, depending on the practice of the firm—were obtained in all establishments where records were available. The year's earnings for all workers in 1938, by individual plants, were copied. In general, earnings were higher on Oahu (Honolulu) than on the other islands.

Wherever possible, week's earnings were based on a pay roll in the spring or early summer of 1939. If this was not representative of operations, because of the seasonality of the industry, the most recent representative week was chosen. Average week's earnings were not high. For women the earnings ranged from \$4.40 in miscellaneous manufacturing and \$8.70 in restaurants serving alcoholic drinks to \$16.15 in beauty shops. For men the range was from \$12.45 in non-alcoholic restaurants to \$21.65 in drug stores. All the women in garment and miscellaneous manufacturing, in stores on the Islands of Hawaii and Kauai, in all laundries, and in restaurants had average week's earnings of under \$10. The beauty shops, with average week's earnings of \$16.15; the Honolulu stores, with earnings of \$14.55; and the pineapple canneries, with earnings of \$13.40, were the three industries ranking highest in earnings.

The Japanese girls in barber shops averaged \$35 a month, and the women in hotels \$23.75 for a half month, \$47.50 on a monthly basis. The month's earnings of office workers and telephone operators compared favorably with those of women in the larger mainland cities.

Average hourly earnings were low in the restaurants, the laundries, the stores in Hilo and other places, and the garment factories and miscellaneous manufacturing group. Excluding the women paid by the month, only two industries, the stores in Honolulu and the pineapple canneries, had average hourly earnings of more than 30 cents, the basic minimum at the present time as set for interstate industries by the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.

The summary table following gives the median week's and hourly earnings.

TABLE 3.—Average Hourly Earnings and Average Week's Earnings of Women and Men, by Industry

Industry	Hourly earnings				Week's earnings			
	Women		Men		Women		Men	
	Number reported	Median earnings	Number reported	Median earnings	Number reported	Median earnings	Number reported	Median earnings
Manufacturing:		Cents		Cents				
Pineapple canning.....	5,975	31.6	6,659	40.2	5,289	\$13.40	6,257	\$18.00
Garments.....	243	25.0	25	( <sup>1</sup> )	243	9.65	29	( <sup>1</sup> )
Other.....	552	20.0	202	43.0	556	4.40	205	18.20
Stores:								
Honolulu:								
General merchandise.....	403	33.1	243	40.3	403	14.55	243	20.20
Drug.....	21	( <sup>1</sup> )	62	41.5	21	( <sup>1</sup> )	62	21.65
Hilo and other places.....	65	16.6	76	29.0	66	9.35	77	16.30
Laundries:								
Power.....	311	20.4	93	31.8	312	9.60	151	19.75
Hand; pressing shops.....	16	( <sup>1</sup> )	17	( <sup>1</sup> )	16	( <sup>1</sup> )	19	( <sup>1</sup> )
Barber shops.....					50	\$35.00		
Beauty shops.....					64	16.15	1	( <sup>1</sup> )
Hotels and restaurants:								
Hotels.....					48	\$23.75	405	\$27.50
Restaurants.....	224	16.3	211	23.1	251	9.15	249	12.80
Alcoholic.....	137	14.7	117	21.7	164	8.70	154	13.62
Nonalcoholic.....	87	19.5	94	24.6	87	9.25	95	12.45
Office <sup>4</sup> .....					252	\$110.00		
Telephone <sup>4</sup> .....	106	46.2			208	\$78.00		
Other <sup>4</sup> .....	75	38.5			75	\$40.00		

<sup>1</sup> Not computed; base too small.

<sup>2</sup> Median of month's earnings.

<sup>3</sup> Median of semimonthly earnings.

<sup>4</sup> Tabulated only for women.

Domestic service in Hawaii provides more opportunities for all-year employment than any other single industry. Over two-thirds of the women classed as servants in the 1930 census were Japanese, who are considered by employers the most desirable maids. In Honolulu domestic employees placed by the Territorial employment service were paid generally from \$5 to \$7.50 a week. More than half of those expected to cook were paid at least \$7.50 a week and of these a number were paid \$10 or over.

Only a small proportion of all household employees were paid as much as \$12 a week or \$50 a month. Maids were not paid any more even if board and lodging were not furnished. The wage level at Hilo, Hawaii, and on Kauai was lower than that in Honolulu, average monthly wages being reported as \$25. Those receiving \$20 a month or more were expected to be able to cook and to be all-round house-workers.

#### YEAR'S EARNINGS

For many workers in Hawaiian industries, the period over which earnings are spread is short and in consequence the year's earnings would be relatively low. Industries which are seasonal, have a high turn-over, and employ only a few workers showed only small proportions of the force on the pay roll of a single firm as having worked practically the entire year.

In the pineapple industry only about one-sixth of the men and one-tenth of the women had work throughout the entire year of 1938, almost one-half of the workers having had employment in less than 12 weeks in the year. Woman workers in the tuna canneries had many weeks in which they obtained only a few hours' work. Work in the garment factories is also seasonal, and only about one-fifth of the women had been on the pay rolls in 40 or more weeks.

Stores had a relatively high turn-over, only about 30 percent of the woman workers (in Honolulu) having worked the entire year for a single employer. Laundries also had a fairly high turn-over, though not so high as in stores. Beauty-shop operators are apt to change employers frequently and only a small proportion worked for a single shop throughout the year.

Hotels employ comparatively few women, and only about one-half of those for whom year's earnings were reported had work spread over the whole 52 weeks. Most of the restaurants are small, many having fewer than 5 employees, and therefore complete earnings records for the year were unusual.

Office workers and telephone operators are more stable in their employment, and at least three-fourths of those for whom year's earnings were reported had been employed the full year in 1938.



In table 4 are shown the median year's earnings of workers who had been on the pay rolls of a single firm for the greater part of 1938.

TABLE 4.—Year's Earnings in Hawaiian Woman-Employing Industries, 1938

Industry and period over which work was spread	Women		Men	
	Number reported	Median earnings	Number reported	Median earnings
Manufacturing:				
Pineapple canning—				
8 and under 12 weeks.....	1,217	\$93	1,422	\$128
52 weeks.....	431	370	893	891
Garments—40 weeks or more.....	78	442	9	<sup>1</sup> 1,449
Other—52 weeks.....	( <sup>2</sup> )	187	103	1,000
Stores:				
Honolulu—52 weeks.....	105	770	146	1,059
Hilo and other places—52 weeks.....			48	900
Laundries, power—40 to 52 weeks.....	194	495	88	1,250
Hotels and restaurants: <sup>3</sup>				
Hotels—				
Irrespective of weeks worked.....	68	364	476	505
52 weeks.....	30	( <sup>4</sup> )	( <sup>5</sup> )	702
Restaurants—52 weeks.....	39	<sup>6</sup> 250-1,227	61	732
Beauty shops—40 or more weeks.....	24	( <sup>7</sup> )		
Office workers—52 weeks.....	( <sup>2</sup> )	<sup>6</sup> 300-3,500		
Telephone workers—52 weeks.....	( <sup>2</sup> )	1,001		

<sup>1</sup> Highest earnings.

<sup>2</sup> Not reported.

<sup>3</sup> Cash wages only.

<sup>4</sup>  $\frac{1}{2}$  earning less than \$600 and 2 earning \$1,000 or more.

<sup>5</sup> About  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the 476 men reported for.

<sup>6</sup> Range.

<sup>7</sup> 9 had earnings of \$1,200 or more, 4 of \$900 but under \$1,200, and 7 of \$600 but under \$900.

### Hours Worked

In most industries hours were long. They were especially long in the restaurants and bar rooms, the many small stores, the Japanese barber shops, and the laundries. Most of these had scheduled hours of 48 or more, and actual daily hours worked by most employees in these industries were over 8. The data on wages and hours show a need for a minimum-wage standard and a maximum-hour regulation for women in the Territory of Hawaii. In a few industries there were numerous examples of good conditions as to both hours and wages, but low standards were apparent in most of the smaller woman-employing establishments.

## *Social Security*

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### PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, NOVEMBER 1940 <sup>1</sup>

PUBLIC employment offices filled 295,000 jobs in private employment in November 1940—more than in any previous November in the history of the United States Employment Service. Expanding construction activities on public projects and new plants stimulated placements in both public and private employment. The observance of three holidays during November probably was the main factor in the 13-percent decline of private placements from October 1940, since the daily rate of placement in November was 4 percent higher than in October. Public placements registered a gain of 3 percent over October, as more workers were required on construction of airports, cantonments, and other military projects. The volume of supplementary placements made during November declined to less than half that of October, following the completion of harvest operations. The number of persons seeking work through the public employment offices declined slightly from the previous month to 4,600,000, the lowest level since November 1937.

Although complete placements declined 10 percent from October, the 365,000 jobs filled by the public employment offices were 26 percent above the volume of the same month in 1939, and 45 percent higher than in November 1938. In addition to increased industrial activity, the rise in placements over the corresponding months of 1938 and 1939 was attributable to increased utilization of the services of the public employment offices in connection with recruitment of labor for the defense program. The tightening of local labor markets, in this connection, has caused many employers to turn to the public employment offices for the first time. Jobs filled in private employment were 18 percent higher than in November 1939 and 66 percent more than in November 1938. More than 154,000 or 52 percent, of these jobs were expected to last 1 month or longer, slightly exceeding the proportion of the previous month. Fewer private jobs than in October were filled

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

in 44 States, but despite the November holidays decreases of less than 10 percent were reported by 13 States. The leading industrial States generally showed smaller declines than other States. Private placements increased more than 40 percent in Florida and Louisiana, and increases from 5 to 23 percent were reported by Kentucky, Texas, Utah, and West Virginia. Part of the increase in Florida is attributable to the filling of the employment needs of the winter resorts.

During the first 11 months of 1940, the public employment offices filled more than 2,900,000 jobs in private employment, a gain of 20 percent over the comparable 1939 period. Private placements doubled in Hawaii as compared with January to November 1939 and increased more than 50 percent in Alaska, Kansas, Massachusetts, Montana, and New York. On the other hand, a decline of 26 percent occurred in New Mexico, and 8 other States reported decreases of less than 10 percent.

Public placements, which usually show a declining tendency during the late fall months, totaled approximately 70,000 in November, only a slight increase over October but a gain of 73 percent over November 1939. In Florida, Idaho, Louisiana, New Jersey, and Washington, such placements were more than double those made in October. Recruitment of labor for military projects was the outstanding factor in these increases. Supplementary placements totaled 158,000 in November, a decline of 57 percent from October. Large numbers of such placements were made by Arkansas, Tennessee, and Texas—33,000, 55,000, and 19,000, respectively.

Applications for work received during November totaled 1,300,000, a decrease of 4 percent from October. The decline in applications and the relatively high volume of placements, as well as the removal from the active files during the month of names of persons who failed to indicate that they were actively seeking work, resulted in a decrease in the number of job seekers registered for work at the end of November to 4,600,000. Of the 23 States reporting decreases, reductions in excess of 15 percent occurred only in Hawaii, Michigan, and Washington.



TABLE 1.—*Summary of Placement Activities of Public Employment Services, November 1940*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		October 1940	November 1939	November 1938
Total complete placements.....	364,798	-10.4	+26.0	+45.5
Private.....	294,777	-13.1	+18.4	+65.8
Regular.....	154,451	-10.0	+24.1	+95.4
Temporary.....	140,326	-16.3	+12.8	+42.0
Public.....	70,021	+2.8	+72.8	-4.0
Supplemental placements.....	158,394	-56.7	+165.8	+132.2
Total applications.....	1,333,591	-4.1	-5.7	+22.7
Active file.....	4,568,415	-1.1	-18.8	-39.3

Veteran placements in November totaled 12,200, a decline of 17 percent from October. Of this total, 9,000 placements were in private employment, which represented a reduction of 18 percent from the previous month but a gain of 15 percent over November 1939. Placements of veterans in public employment declined 14 percent from October, to 3,200. Approximately 52,000 applications for work were received from veterans during November, a decline of 4.5 percent from the preceding month. The number of veterans registered as job seekers in State active files totaled 200,200, a drop of about 2,500 since October 31.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, November 1940*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		October 1940	November 1939	November 1938
Total complete placements.....	12,216	-16.8	+20.3	+5.2
Private.....	9,019	-17.9	+14.7	+43.1
Regular.....	3,830	-10.4	+35.0	+85.9
Temporary.....	5,189	-22.6	+3.2	+22.3
Public.....	3,197	-13.6	+39.9	-39.7
Total applications.....	51,733	-4.5	-6.8	+22.6
Active file.....	200,231	-1.2	-15.2	-47.4

TABLE 3.—Activities of Public Employment Services, all Registrants, by States,  
November 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 26, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements						Applications received				Active file as of Nov. 30, 1940
	Total	Private				Sup- ple- mental place- ments	Num- ber	Percent of change from—			
		Num- ber	Percent of change from—		Reg- ular (over 1 month)			Pub- lic	Octo- ber 1940	Nov- em- ber 1939	
			Octo- ber 1940	Nov- em- ber 1939							
Total.....	364,798	294,777	-13.1	+18.4	154,451	70,021	158,394	1,333,591	-4.1	-5.7	4,568,415
Region I:											
Connecticut.....	6,644	6,122	-12.8	+46.2	4,106	522	39	15,936	-16.3	-11.2	59,161
Maine.....	1,661	1,472	-9.2	+26.9	1,119	189	4	10,672	-1.0	+21.8	28,237
Massachusetts.....	5,497	4,844	-7.5	+45.7	3,656	653	184	32,808	-13.1	-19.0	132,284
New Hampshire.....	1,814	1,536	-9.1	-8	1,136	278	85	5,440	-28.0	-27.6	15,392
Rhode Island.....	1,430	1,152	-9.8	+35.0	910	278	11	6,683	-31.2	+8.0	28,822
Vermont.....	1,444	860	-16.9	+23.2	396	584	32	3,156	-7.4	+11.3	11,383
Region II:											
New York.....	31,560	29,842	-17.8	+43.7	14,534	1,718	922	187,205	+12.8	+15.6	497,668
Region III:											
Delaware.....	1,212	1,145	-35.6	-30.2	597	67	38	3,126	-19.4	-7.5	8,981
New Jersey.....	12,535	10,796	-9.6	+6.5	6,368	1,739	91	47,341	+4.6	+1	165,645
Pennsylvania.....	12,911	12,072	-19.0	+11.5	8,327	839	1,159	95,346	-15.7	-2.8	308,189
Region IV:											
District of Co- lumbia.....	4,714	4,260	-7.0	+45.9	1,863	454	0	12,115	-9.8	+11.0	26,945
Maryland.....	4,671	4,117	-9.4	+29.1	2,460	554	7	15,842	-11.1	-19.6	48,741
North Carolina.....	12,846	4,978	-21.8	-2.2	2,961	7,868	332	31,675	+1	+12.4	89,835
Virginia.....	6,689	5,630	-20.2	+61.9	3,421	1,059	594	20,215	+20.2	-2.0	47,836
West Virginia.....	3,657	3,464	+11.3	+5.5	1,706	193	256	16,270	-6.5	-32.6	57,925
Region V:											
Kentucky.....	3,227	3,017	+5.3	+40.4	2,109	210	72	13,057	-24.5	-35.2	86,891
Michigan.....	12,550	11,226	-13.8	+18.7	6,833	1,124	214	45,086	-11.8	-31.0	149,725
Ohio.....	17,875	16,890	-1.8	+24.7	9,389	985	572	64,543	-1.0	-4.1	323,737
Region VI:											
Illinois.....	15,974	15,492	-2.0	+15.6	8,878	482	685	65,426	+2.0	+19.9	165,652
Indiana.....	9,173	8,822	-17.6	+14.8	5,489	351	1,016	34,298	-11.6	-28.8	141,700
Wisconsin.....	7,114	6,588	-12.9	+28.9	3,384	526	260	27,007	-27.0	-6.0	99,292
Region VII:											
Alabama.....	3,543	2,894	-17.1	-11.5	2,304	649	215	23,922	-9.0	-45.1	89,401
Florida.....	17,068	4,777	+47.0	+17.0	3,857	12,291	298	31,256	+25.7	+47.9	76,481
Georgia.....	6,558	4,920	-31.1	-5.1	2,320	1,638	107	20,953	-12.6	-33.3	138,347
Mississippi.....	3,623	2,475	-39.2	+23.6	1,952	1,148	180	16,318	-26.3	-31.4	66,051
South Carolina.....	2,730	2,004	-31.8	+28.0	1,244	726	26	9,215	-15.5	-31.1	42,137
Tennessee.....	6,357	4,335	-22.8	+25.9	2,593	2,022	55,216	16,896	-10.2	+19.5	110,777
Region VIII:											
Iowa.....	6,501	5,462	-7.5	+7.3	1,987	1,039	663	22,182	+4.4	+23.3	74,626
Minnesota.....	5,957	5,478	-19.2	+7.6	2,267	479	240	23,286	-9.4	-5.1	108,300
Nebraska.....	2,341	1,756	-45.7	+30.8	559	585	46	8,188	-12.8	-7.9	38,465
North Dakota.....	2,469	2,323	-42.6	+16.1	802	146	51	4,418	-26.0	-12.8	23,273
South Dakota.....	1,490	1,190	-13.2	+54.1	322	300	21	3,512	-12.9	-35.3	21,436
Region IX:											
Arkansas.....	10,157	5,544	-12.8	+176.8	1,245	4,613	33,006	13,491	-19.5	+69.4	38,394
Kansas.....	3,958	3,305	-26.0	+28.2	1,186	653	338	19,313	+20.5	+30.8	53,553
Missouri.....	7,716	6,861	-22.7	+7.1	4,008	855	5,872	46,078	+2.6	+6.3	158,690
Oklahoma.....	3,395	2,904	-9.4	-24.0	1,025	431	4,407	15,037	-12.0	-58.2	45,785
Region X:											
Louisiana.....	13,897	10,803	+40.3	+131.1	9,748	3,094	2,244	29,272	+8.1	+43.7	112,465
New Mexico.....	2,474	2,047	-44.3	+4.6	844	427	1,130	6,022	+29.3	-4	24,628
Texas.....	39,562	29,650	+12.1	-5.5	7,777	9,912	19,069	71,308	+5.6	+2.9	220,301
Region XI:											
Arizona.....	2,409	1,953	-10.8	-53.3	1,154	456	8,003	5,945	-14.0	-25.9	17,827
Colorado.....	4,005	3,693	-49.2	+32.5	1,144	312	231	15,090	+7.2	-1.9	60,527
Idaho.....	2,650	1,583	-50.1	-9.8	627	1,067	695	7,719	-7	+14.6	14,960
Montana.....	1,134	889	-54.0	+21.1	509	245	282	4,818	+15.4	+10.0	17,572
Utah.....	2,176	1,915	+23.0	+11.0	585	261	189	8,114	+21.3	-15.5	24,003
Wyoming.....	1,048	549	-46.1	+21.5	286	499	16	3,678	+18.8	+15.6	6,572
Region XII:											
California.....	22,585	20,840	-18.2	+19.0	10,124	1,745	8,574	105,133	-8.1	-21.5	378,463
Nevada.....	863	758	-13.7	-5.7	414	105	184	2,378	-5.0	-11.3	5,894
Oregon.....	5,944	5,135	-7	+17.4	1,467	809	8,797	18,700	-12.2	+12.6	37,145
Washington.....	5,730	3,659	-28.9	+10.4	2,184	2,071	1,675	25,816	-20.2	+11.9	69,432
Territories:											
Alaska.....	415	218	-30.4	+74.4	74	197	23	929	-7.3	+25.9	1,514
Hawaii.....	1,045	472	-7.6	+65.6	201	573	23	1,591	-26.0	+5.1	7,355

TABLE 4.—Activities of Public Employment Services, Veterans, by States, November 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 26, 1940]

Social Security Board, region and State	Complete placements						Applications received			Active file as of Nov. 30, 1940
	Total	Num- ber	Private		Regular (over 1 month)	Pub- lic	Num- ber	Percent of change from—		
			Percent of change from—					October 1940 <sup>1</sup>	Novem- ber 1939 <sup>1</sup>	
			October 1940 <sup>1</sup>	Novem- ber 1939 <sup>1</sup>						
Total.....	12,216	9,019	-17.9	+14.7	3,830	3,197	51,733	-4.5	-6.8	200,231
Region I:										
Connecticut.....	270	241	-7.3	+55.5	153	29	554	-31.2	-26.6	2,602
Maine.....	66	51	-23.9		36	15	496	+13.0	+20.7	1,525
Massachusetts.....	157	113	+28.4	+36.1	90	44	970	-22.8	-25.7	4,488
New Hampshire.....	69	50	-37.5	-13.8	35	19	241	-24.0	-16.9	544
Rhode Island.....	34	29			21	5	186	-37.8	-13.1	776
Vermont.....	86	26			9	60	128	-3.8	+10.3	557
Region II:										
New York.....	668	585	-20.6	+59.8	220	83	4,472	+44.5	+75.3	15,393
Region III:										
Delaware.....	29	27			13	2	100	-38.3	-20.6	315
New Jersey.....	218	190	-6.9	+13.1	135	28	1,634	+61.3	+36.5	5,379
Pennsylvania.....	282	245	-32.5	+2.1	179	37	3,714	-16.5	-2.4	12,890
Region IV:										
Dist. of Columbia.....	163	122	-18.7	+32.6	47	41	628	-11.9	+14.0	1,517
Maryland.....	171	129	-15.7	+4.9	75	42	599	-4.3	-17.3	1,955
North Carolina.....	341	98	-23.4	+6.5	32	243	797	-11.0	+10.4	2,534
Virginia.....	145	85	-50.3	+10.4	45	60	648	+39.4	+1.7	1,387
West Virginia.....	112	104		+48.6	55	8	610	-17.1	-53.5	3,255
Region V:										
Kentucky.....	95	85	-7.6	+4.9	56	10	457	-37.6	-44.5	3,658
Michigan.....	532	434	-6.3	+17.3	245	98	2,246	-7.1	-39.1	5,767
Ohio.....	607	560	-3.9	+22.8	257	47	2,721	+7.9	-1.8	17,673
Region VI:										
Illinois.....	492	435	+14.2	+27.2	165	57	2,608	+9.0	+52.2	7,500
Indiana.....	292	273	-31.6	+43.7	148	19	1,344	-11.1	-31.2	6,436
Wisconsin.....	227	192	-27.0	+22.3	95	35	1,413	-40.3	-14.6	6,758
Region VII:										
Alabama.....	87	68	-32.7	-38.2	46	19	820	-15.2	-48.8	3,801
Florida.....	239	131	+14.9	+40.9	108	108	615	-22.2	-29.5	2,934
Georgia.....	158	106	-45.1	-36.1	25	52	552	-4.7	-42.4	3,589
Mississippi.....	71	33			21	38	462	-31.8	-22.6	2,026
South Carolina.....	84	54	-46.0		29	30	249	-13.8	-31.0	1,304
Tennessee.....	171	98	-43.4	-7.5	45	73	438	-33.4	+10.0	4,103
Region VIII:										
Iowa.....	478	410	+11.1	+37.6	90	68	1,238	+8.9	+31.4	4,929
Minnesota.....	257	218	-10.3	+13.0	60	39	1,383	+12.8	+13.7	6,854
Nebraska.....	83	55	-55.3		9	28	474	+18.8	+6	2,364
North Dakota.....	61	55	-49.1		22	6	141	-3.4	+24.8	1,017
South Dakota.....	85	62			13	23	188	+11.2	-23.0	1,174
Region IX:										
Arkansas.....	539	170	-23.8	+150.0	18	369	692	-21.6	+164.1	1,791
Kansas.....	144	99	-43.8	+22.2	22	45	1,042	+35.0	+41.6	3,472
Missouri.....	336	302	-22.4	-14.4	135	34	2,298	+2.3	+14.6	7,698
Oklahoma.....	134	96	-32.4	-33.3	25	38	805	-8.2	-72.0	2,808
Region X:										
Louisiana.....	394	265	+45.6	+130.4	232	129	739	-5.5	+22.8	3,321
New Mexico.....	84	65	-30.1		24	19	362	+66.8	+60.9	1,453
Texas.....	1,241	749	-6.5	-27.0	116	492	2,651	+10.1	+37.9	7,427
Region XI:										
Arizona.....	127	78	-13.3	-55.7	40	49	369	-12.8	-6.1	1,190
Colorado.....	119	104	-58.9	+15.6	30	15	776	+46.4	-10.4	2,372
Idaho.....	159	100	-59.3	-23.7	33	59	508	-11.6	+33.0	835
Montana.....	66	45			20	21	321	+12.6	+22.0	1,155
Utah.....	78	52			15	26	320	+28.0	-30.4	1,158
Wyoming.....	62	25			15	37	263	+50.3	+37.7	421
Region XII:										
California.....	1,147	1,007	-21.3	+33.2	329	140	4,845	-19.2	-31.7	20,863
Nevada.....	89	82	-8.9	+30.2	27	7	142	-6.0	-6.0	324
Oregon.....	253	193	-24.6	+17.0	68	60	1,134	-7.4	+27.1	2,489
Washington.....	375	207	+5.1	+29.4	93	168	1,245	-34.0	+18.9	3,992
Territories:										
Alaska.....	17	7			6	10	61	+3.4	+10.9	105
Hawaii.....	22	9			3	13	34			353

<sup>1</sup> Where less than 50 veteran placements or applications were involved in either period the percentage change was not computed.



## UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, NOVEMBER 1940<sup>1</sup>

CONTRARY to the experience of the preceding year, both the number of persons certified for benefits and benefit payments declined in November, reflecting the expansion of activities resulting from the defense program. Approximately 3,600,000 claims were received in State local offices, a 10-percent reduction from October. Benefit payments to unemployed workers aggregated \$29,600,000, a decline of 8 percent from the previous month. Approximately 2,900,000 weeks of unemployment were compensated during the month. A minimum of 824,000 unemployed workers received at least one benefit payment in November, and the weekly average of benefit recipients totaled 676,000. This was the fifth successive monthly decline in the number of beneficiaries.

### *Claims Received*

Continued increases in industrial activity and employment caused a 10-percent decline in claim receipts from October to November—to 3,600,000—the lowest monthly volume in 1940. Decreases from October were general in the Great Lakes, South Atlantic, and Gulf States areas. Altogether, 33 States reported decreases, the sharpest declines—between 30 and 50 percent—being shown by Florida, Michigan, and Rhode Island. States reporting increased receipts in November were concentrated in the northern portion of the Great Plains area and also in the Pacific coast area. Only 2 industrial States reported increased receipts in November, but both these rises were insignificant. In half the remaining States showing increases, expansion was less than 10 percent.

Although the majority of the States registered increases, the November weekly average of persons certified for benefit<sup>2</sup> for all types of unemployment decreased 2 percent from October, to 860,000, the lowest figure recorded in 1940. The decline represents the sixth successive monthly decrease from the high level in May, reflecting mainly the steady improvement in employment conditions throughout the country over that period. With the exception of the District of Columbia, every State in the South Atlantic, East South Central, and Gulf areas, where industrial activity has increased pronouncedly

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

<sup>2</sup> The Bureau of Employment Security terms these "continued claims," using this expression to indicate certification that the claimant has completed a waiting-period week or a compensable period (usually a calendar week or 7-day period).

since the advent of the defense program, reported a decline in the weekly average of certified claims during November. Declines in average weekly claim receipts in these States ranged from 2 percent in Maryland to 40 percent in Florida. Sharp declines were also noted in Michigan, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, and sizable reductions were apparent in Arkansas and Hawaii. Increases in average weekly claim receipts, on the other hand, were reported by most of the States west of the Mississippi, where seasonal declines in construction and canning were contributing factors.

Weekly claim receipts declined successively from 868,000 in the last week of October to a low of 846,000 in the week ended November 9, during which Election Day was observed. Thereafter, claim-receipt fluctuations largely reflected the effects of holidays. Weekly claim receipts expanded to 887,000 in the last week of November. The sharpest deviations from the general trend appeared in Florida, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, while California, Minnesota, New York, and Washington each showed pronounced increases in claim receipts during the last week of November over the week ended October 26.

The weekly average of continued claims filed for total unemployment in November approximated 747,000, a decline of 3 percent from October. This represented a somewhat sharper decrease than for all types of unemployment, since the latter was influenced by a 6-percent increase over October in claim receipts for partial and part-total unemployment. In Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, and Massachusetts average weekly claim receipts for total unemployment showed a decline in November in contrast to increases in claim receipts for all types of unemployment, and in Delaware and New Hampshire increases were much less pronounced than for all types of unemployment. Likewise, Connecticut, Indiana, and Maryland reported sharper decreases in average weekly claim receipts for total unemployment than for all unemployment, whereas in Hawaii claim receipts for all unemployment showed the sharper decline. Since the majority of all claims received are for total unemployment, little change was noted in the trend of continued claims for total unemployment as compared with claims for unemployment. From the week ended October 19, when 775,000 claims for total unemployment were filed, receipts declined to 738,000 in each of the weeks ended November 2 and November 9. Claim receipts then increased in each of the 3 weeks following, totaling 767,000 for the week ended November 30. Claim receipts for partial and part-total unemployment increased from 109,000 for the week ended October 26 to 121,000 during the last week of November.

### *Benefits Paid*

Benefit payments to unemployed workers in November declined 8 percent, to \$29,600,000, the lowest amount disbursed in 1940 and approximately half the record sum paid out in July. Of the 31 States reporting lower payments than in October, the outstanding decline of 44 percent was shown by Florida. Reductions ranging from 30 to 35 percent occurred in four industrial States—Michigan, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island. Lesser declines were reported by 8 other leading industrial States. Increases ranging from 30 to 35 percent, on the other hand, were shown in Idaho, Nevada, New Hampshire, and North Dakota. New Hampshire reported seasonal curtailment in the shoe industry, while in the other three States declines in construction and other seasonal industries contributed to the increase. Disbursements in Michigan declined below \$1,000,000 for the first time since benefits were initiated in that State. In 15 other States smaller volumes of benefit payments were issued in November than in any other month of the current year. Exclusive of the first month of benefit operations, monthly disbursements were also the lowest on record in Arizona, Delaware, Illinois, Iowa, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.

Benefit payments to unemployed workers during the first 11 months of 1940 amounted to more than \$489,000,000. This represented an increase of 16 percent, or more than \$61,000,000 over the amount disbursed by the 49 States which paid benefits throughout the first 11 months of 1939, despite the fact that benefits were paid to railroad workers up to July first of that year. Increased disbursements were reported by 35 States, with the sharpest expansion shown in Florida, where payments were 90 percent greater than those issued during January to November 1939. This exceptional increase resulted largely from the modifications of the provisions relative to minimum duration and maximum benefit amounts that could be received in a single benefit year. Increases ranging between 55 and 71 percent were reported by Alaska, Arkansas, California, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Washington, most of which had enacted amendments liberalizing their State laws. Of the 14 States reporting decreases reductions from 19 to 26 percent occurred in Iowa, Michigan, and Pennsylvania.

Approximately 2,900,000 weeks of unemployment were compensated during November 1940, a decline of 9 percent from October. In



most States, changes in the number of weeks compensated closely paralleled changes in the amount of benefits paid. More than 2,500,000 weeks, or 87 percent of all weeks of unemployment compensated, represented total unemployment. Weeks of partial and part-total unemployment numbered more than 363,000, an increase of 3,000 over the previous month. This rise was largely attributable to the increase in Massachusetts, which first began to pay partial benefits in October. Fewer weeks of partial and part-total unemployment were reported by 29 States; in Hawaii, Michigan, and West Virginia such weeks compensated during November declined to less than half of the October volume. On the other hand, Connecticut reported an increase of 77 percent over October in the number of weeks of partial and part-total unemployment compensated, and rises in excess of 50 percent occurred in Alaska and New Hampshire. More than one-fourth of all weeks compensated in Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, and New Hampshire, during November, were for partial and part-total unemployment.

Although the number of individuals receiving first payments during November exceeded those who exhausted their benefit rights, the average number of benefit recipients declined 3 percent, to 676,000, indicating that a large number of recipients found gainful employment during November. Twenty-six States reported decreases in the average number of claimants receiving benefits in November, with the sharpest reductions of 42 and 35 percent occurring in Florida and North Carolina, respectively. Expansion in winter-resort areas in Florida and in textile operations in North Carolina contributed to the decreases in these States. Declines ranging between 20 and 30 percent were shown in Arkansas, Michigan, Mississippi, and Rhode Island, and the majority of the leading industrial States reported fewer benefit recipients than in October. California was the only industrial State reporting an increase of more than 10 percent. The outstanding increases in recipients, on the other hand, were reported by Idaho, Montana, New Hampshire, Nevada, North Dakota, Washington, and Wyoming. In 18 States, the average number of benefit recipients in November was the lowest this year. Michigan reported 84 percent fewer claimants in November than in August of this year and decreases from 1940 monthly peaks in excess of 60 percent were shown for Alaska, Connecticut, Iowa, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania.

TABLE 1.—Continued Unemployment-Compensation Claims<sup>1</sup> Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, November 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 23, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Claimants for benefit <sup>1</sup>			Weeks compensated			
	Number	Type		Number	Type of unemployment		
		Waiting period	Compens- able		Total	Partial and part- total combined <sup>2</sup>	Par- tial only <sup>2</sup>
Total.....	3,622,101	721,871	2,900,230	2,894,546	2,531,424	363,122	.....
Region I:							
Connecticut.....	31,943	7,681	24,262	24,991	19,959	5,032	( <sup>3</sup> )
Maine.....	43,033	5,903	37,130	36,473	27,654	8,819	8,006
Massachusetts.....	209,906	29,893	180,013	197,990	166,053	31,937	30,429
New Hampshire.....	30,589	8,616	21,973	21,536	12,939	8,597	( <sup>3</sup> )
Rhode Island.....	29,665	6,014	23,651	23,651	19,442	4,209	( <sup>3</sup> )
Vermont.....	7,482	1,901	5,581	5,358	4,843	515	395
Region II:							
New York.....	618,009	121,516	496,493	495,686	495,686	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Region III:							
Delaware.....	6,040	910	5,130	5,108	3,579	1,529	1,433
New Jersey.....	127,081	38,124	88,957	91,545	91,545	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Pennsylvania.....	242,739	61,949	180,790	175,511	175,511	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Region IV:							
Dist. of Columbia.....	21,432	3,116	18,316	17,253	16,086	1,167	( <sup>3</sup> )
Maryland.....	48,754	4,809	43,945	42,147	32,439	9,708	9,446
North Carolina.....	62,316	13,552	48,764	50,108	47,415	2,693	2,209
Virginia.....	44,118	5,219	38,899	38,300	29,986	8,314	7,178
West Virginia.....	34,469	9,344	25,125	24,384	23,741	643	( <sup>3</sup> )
Region V:							
Kentucky.....	31,324	5,599	25,725	47,138	37,044	10,094	( <sup>3</sup> )
Michigan.....	91,165	17,617	73,548	78,486	73,510	4,976	( <sup>3</sup> )
Ohio.....	198,614	57,772	140,842	141,658	112,505	29,153	( <sup>3</sup> )
Region VI:							
Illinois.....	259,134	33,104	226,030	222,865	141,861	81,004	64,495
Indiana.....	64,448	12,188	52,260	52,171	38,303	13,868	( <sup>3</sup> )
Wisconsin.....	34,296	12,109	22,187	21,703	18,552	3,151	1,782
Region VII:							
Alabama.....	61,169	11,231	49,938	48,680	46,463	2,226	1,253
Florida.....	43,352	5,979	37,373	40,820	33,821	6,999	( <sup>3</sup> )
Georgia.....	50,104	10,314	39,790	39,636	37,057	2,579	1,655
Mississippi.....	23,874	3,984	19,890	19,347	18,129	1,218	323
South Carolina.....	30,419	4,634	25,785	25,192	22,044	3,148	1,130
Tennessee.....	70,796	11,377	59,419	52,330	46,743	5,587	2,303
Region VIII:							
Iowa.....	30,808	10,719	20,089	18,663	15,367	3,296	1,132
Minnesota.....	62,559	10,600	51,959	49,240	44,424	4,816	( <sup>3</sup> )
Nebraska.....	14,607	2,794	11,813	11,163	10,186	977	395
North Dakota.....	4,477	877	3,600	3,052	2,882	170	17
South Dakota.....	3,715	1,190	2,525	2,489	2,272	217	( <sup>3</sup> )
Region IX:							
Arkansas.....	28,354	6,897	21,457	21,457	19,799	1,658	129
Kansas.....	24,383	9,853	14,530	14,479	12,780	1,699	861
Missouri.....	107,375	37,856	69,519	66,914	47,473	19,441	14,792
Oklahoma.....	32,983	7,838	25,145	23,509	20,152	3,357	529
Region X:							
Louisiana.....	65,108	12,604	52,504	51,377	46,661	4,716	( <sup>3</sup> )
New Mexico.....	11,546	1,541	10,005	9,244	8,548	696	300
Texas.....	117,402	14,639	102,763	74,030	63,340	10,690	( <sup>3</sup> )
Region XI:							
Arizona.....	11,228	2,609	8,619	8,456	7,893	563	48
Colorado.....	26,473	4,061	22,412	22,485	19,489	2,996	2,141
Idaho.....	13,348	3,653	9,695	8,680	8,216	464	( <sup>3</sup> )
Montana.....	20,678	4,893	15,785	14,567	14,567	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Utah.....	14,567	3,178	11,389	11,500	10,260	1,240	289
Wyoming.....	5,969	1,498	4,471	4,446	3,830	616	272
Region XII:							
California.....	409,728	59,512	350,216	361,288	313,204	48,084	32,387
Nevada.....	8,409	1,243	7,166	6,937	6,502	435	259
Oregon.....	25,391	5,464	19,927	18,964	15,983	2,981	2,349
Washington.....	59,589	12,168	47,421	47,419	40,857	6,562	( <sup>3</sup> )
Territories:							
Alaska.....	2,884	946	1,938	1,498	1,306	102	0
Hawaii.....	4,159	783	3,376	2,613	2,433	180	160

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—Continued Unemployment-Compensation Claims<sup>1</sup> Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, November 1940—Continued

Social Security Board, region and State	Benefits paid				Month and year benefits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable <sup>4</sup>
	Amount <sup>1</sup>	Type of unemployment				
		Total	Partial and part- total com- bined <sup>3</sup>	Par- tial only <sup>2</sup>		
Total.....	\$29,560,940	\$27,187,060	\$2,348,146			\$1,313,459,398
Region I:						
Connecticut.....	225,955	196,205	29,319	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1938.....	22,330,044
Maine.....	237,139	188,914	48,225	\$43,815	do.....	10,779,116
Massachusetts.....	1,893,514	1,710,635	181,831	171,681	do.....	76,134,263
New Hampshire.....	160,233	110,103	50,130	( <sup>5</sup> )	do.....	6,428,909
Rhode Island.....	236,333	216,246	20,087	( <sup>5</sup> )	do.....	22,688,913
Vermont.....	43,957	41,203	2,688	1,890	do.....	2,254,207
Region II:						
New York.....	5,819,814	5,819,814	( <sup>7</sup> )	( <sup>7</sup> )	do.....	290,466,290
Region III:						
Delaware.....	38,842	31,497	7,342	6,722	January 1939.....	1,503,142
New Jersey.....	887,957	887,957	( <sup>7</sup> )	( <sup>7</sup> )	do.....	29,992,482
Pennsylvania.....	1,887,501	1,887,501	( <sup>7</sup> )	( <sup>7</sup> )	January 1938.....	168,285,425
Region IV:						
Dist. of Columbia.....	201,648	188,398	12,501	( <sup>5</sup> )	do.....	4,991,785
Maryland.....	359,300	301,932	57,303	55,529	do.....	22,253,326
North Carolina.....	237,330	229,521	7,637	5,573	do.....	16,950,548
Virginia.....	289,689	247,920	41,708	34,420	do.....	15,711,495
West Virginia.....	206,185	199,770	6,415	( <sup>5</sup> )	do.....	20,000,368
Region V:						
Kentucky.....	352,534	305,841	44,159	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1939.....	9,300,942
Michigan.....	883,180	855,449	27,731	( <sup>5</sup> )	July 1938.....	103,455,009
Ohio.....	<sup>7</sup> 1,241,566	<sup>7</sup> 1,107,639	<sup>7</sup> 133,927	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1939.....	<sup>7</sup> 46,996,586
Region VI:						
Illinois.....	2,455,206	1,842,281	603,035	458,429	July 1939.....	57,745,382
Indiana.....	481,758	408,734	72,853	( <sup>5</sup> )	April 1938.....	35,529,432
Wisconsin.....	219,922	198,292	21,630	11,181	July 1936.....	19,347,127
Region VII:						
Alabama.....	313,869	302,176	11,559	5,931	January 1938.....	16,876,612
Florida.....	389,564	335,335	54,229	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1939.....	9,575,510
Georgia.....	259,165	249,444	9,721	6,400	do.....	7,429,356
Mississippi.....	122,236	115,715	6,495	1,830	April 1938.....	4,934,883
South Carolina.....	165,523	150,663	14,780	4,774	July 1938.....	5,078,202
Tennessee.....	370,836	345,822	25,014	9,649	January 1938.....	16,560,223
Region VIII:						
Iowa.....	162,180	144,763	17,293	5,183	July 1938.....	11,549,854
Minnesota.....	488,606	452,107	36,401	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1938.....	24,741,146
Nebraska.....	98,979	91,733	7,246	2,818	January 1939.....	3,004,934
North Dakota.....	28,229	26,932	1,297	106	do.....	1,116,872
South Dakota.....	18,421	16,812	1,607	( <sup>5</sup> )	do.....	736,847
Region IX:						
Arkansas.....	131,433	124,876	6,532	559	do.....	4,636,660
Kansas.....	130,054	118,563	11,491	5,287	do.....	4,170,460
Missouri.....	513,068	416,888	96,157	71,553	do.....	12,123,822
Oklahoma.....	220,127	198,631	21,496	2,202	December 1938.....	7,768,747
Region X:						
Louisiana.....	462,615	427,824	34,265	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1938.....	16,175,542
New Mexico.....	84,278	79,066	5,212	2,106	December 1938.....	2,354,743
Texas.....	597,924	542,676	54,949	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1938.....	29,357,435
Region XI:						
Arizona.....	90,468	86,117	4,351	241	do.....	4,651,142
Colorado.....	219,430	196,631	22,714	15,703	January 1939.....	7,395,662
Idaho.....	95,626	92,085	3,541	( <sup>5</sup> )	September 1938.....	4,436,062
Montana.....	157,614	157,614	( <sup>7</sup> )	( <sup>7</sup> )	July 1939.....	3,685,767
Utah.....	115,659	107,698	7,961	1,560	January 1938.....	5,685,040
Wyoming.....	54,227	48,795	5,432	2,014	January 1939.....	2,303,311
Region XII:						
California.....	4,982,914	4,540,310	433,559	282,888	January 1938.....	121,997,095
Nevada.....	84,278	80,090	4,188	2,447	January 1939.....	1,830,517
Oregon.....	224,178	200,960	23,081	17,706	January 1938.....	13,862,528
Washington.....	578,630	521,583	57,047	( <sup>5</sup> )	January 1939.....	14,875,760
Territories:						
Alaska.....	21,486	20,604	882	0	do.....	850,765
Hawaii.....	19,760	18,635	1,125	990	do.....	549,101

<sup>1</sup> I. e., certification that the claimant has completed a waiting-period week or a compensable period (usually a calendar week or 7-day period).

<sup>2</sup> Benefits for partial and part-total unemployment are not provided by State law in Montana, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania.

<sup>3</sup> Includes supplemental payments, not classified by type of unemployment.

<sup>4</sup> Adjusted to exclude returned and voided benefit checks except for November.

<sup>5</sup> Data for partial unemployment included with data for part-total unemployment.

<sup>6</sup> Payments for part-total and partial unemployment are made for benefit periods of one quarter. The number of weeks represented by each such payment is determined by dividing the amount paid by the claimant's benefit rate for total unemployment.

<sup>7</sup> Figures for November exclude 3 payments amounting to \$151 arising from recalculation of weekly benefit amounts and 9 payments for 21 weeks amounting to \$251 for payment of miners' claims resulting from labor dispute in 1939. Both amounts, however, are included in benefits since first payable.



TABLE 2.—Trend of Weekly Continued Claims<sup>1</sup> Received for All Types of Unemployment,<sup>2</sup> by States, for Weeks Ending in November 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Dec. 26, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Weekly average <sup>3</sup>			Claimants (in thousands) for benefits, <sup>1</sup> week ending—						
	October (in thousands)	November		Oct. 19	Oct. 26	Nov. 2	Nov. 9	Nov. 16	Nov. 23	Nov. 30
		Number (in thousands)	Percent of change from October							
Total	876.2	859.5	-1.9	885.8	867.6	852.7	846.1	857.6	854.0	887.3
Region I:										
Connecticut	7.9	7.7	-2.0	8.1	7.7	7.9	8.0	7.7	7.7	7.4
Maine	9.0	9.9	+10.6	9.0	10.1	9.9	9.2	10.9	11.3	8.4
Massachusetts	50.7	51.8	+2.1	51.1	52.3	52.1	50.8	52.8	54.2	49.2
New Hampshire	6.4	7.0	+10.0	7.5	6.8	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.2	6.8
Rhode Island	10.3	7.2	-30.0	10.4	8.6	8.8	6.7	7.5	7.1	5.8
Vermont	1.7	1.8	+4.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9
Region II:										
New York <sup>4</sup>	144.5	147.0	+1.7	143.4	143.4	143.7	142.0	146.0	145.6	157.9
Region III:										
Delaware	1.4	1.6	+11.7	1.4	1.3	2.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6
New Jersey <sup>4</sup>	29.0	30.3	+4.6	28.3	29.9	29.1	29.6	30.6	30.1	31.9
Pennsylvania <sup>4</sup>	77.3	60.1	-22.2	72.7	74.8	65.8	65.9	61.7	63.6	43.2
Region IV:										
District of Columbia	4.6	5.0	+9.2	4.6	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.1	4.9	5.1
Maryland	11.7	11.6	-1.6	11.6	11.9	11.4	11.9	12.0	11.8	10.6
North Carolina	18.6	14.9	-20.2	19.6	16.0	16.3	18.1	13.0	15.1	11.9
Virginia	11.7	10.5	-10.3	12.0	10.7	12.4	9.7	10.2	9.1	11.0
West Virginia	9.4	8.2	-12.6	9.1	8.9	8.5	8.2	8.2	7.9	8.5
Region V:										
Kentucky	7.0	7.2	+2.5	7.0	7.6	7.0	7.3	6.7	6.9	7.9
Michigan	30.3	22.6	-25.5	29.8	26.8	24.6	22.7	22.7	21.0	21.8
Ohio	44.4	45.6	+2.7	51.1	43.1	44.1	44.3	45.7	44.4	49.3
Region VI:										
Illinois	60.6	61.1	+7.7	62.9	60.7	59.6	59.0	60.2	58.3	68.2
Indiana	15.1	14.9	-1.2	15.1	15.2	14.2	12.8	15.5	13.9	18.1
Wisconsin	7.2	8.2	+14.0	7.3	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.3	8.8
Region VII:										
Alabama	15.9	14.2	-10.4	17.3	15.7	14.7	14.5	13.5	12.5	15.8
Florida	18.2	11.0	-39.8	18.1	14.8	14.5	11.5	11.0	8.8	9.2
Georgia	12.9	11.8	-8.4	13.5	12.1	12.6	10.5	12.9	10.6	12.3
Mississippi	6.5	5.6	-14.6	6.0	5.6	5.1	5.8	5.6	5.5	5.8
South Carolina	7.8	7.2	-7.7	7.0	8.2	7.8	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.2
Tennessee	18.0	17.1	-5.1	17.2	17.2	18.1	16.0	18.3	15.9	17.3
Region VIII:										
Iowa	7.0	7.1	+1.7	7.0	6.9	6.9	7.1	7.0	7.5	7.3
Minnesota	12.8	14.6	+14.5	12.9	12.8	13.1	13.9	13.5	13.6	19.3
Nebraska	3.2	3.4	+5.8	3.5	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.5	4.0
North Dakota	.7	1.0	+41.7	.8	.8	.8	.9	1.0	1.1	1.3
South Dakota	.7	.8	+22.6	.7	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.0	1.0
Region IX:										
Arkansas	8.0	6.7	-15.6	7.3	7.6	6.8	7.7	5.7	6.9	6.5
Kansas	5.0	5.6	+13.2	4.9	5.4	5.2	5.5	5.5	6.2	5.8
Missouri	21.9	25.1	+14.8	22.5	23.0	24.7	23.4	26.3	23.9	27.4
Oklahoma	7.9	7.8	-1.7	7.8	7.8	7.7	7.6	7.7	8.0	7.9
Region X:										
Louisiana	17.3	15.1	-12.2	17.7	17.4	10.6	19.0	14.9	13.6	17.6
New Mexico	3.0	2.7	-9.9	3.3	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.8
Texas	28.7	27.6	-3.7	28.2	27.9	27.6	27.6	27.7	27.3	28.0
Region XI:										
Arizona	2.8	2.6	-6.5	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5
Colorado	5.7	6.2	+8.6	6.3	6.4	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.0	7.0
Idaho	2.1	3.0	+44.3	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.7	2.9	3.5	3.7
Montana <sup>4</sup>	3.7	4.7	+25.1	4.2	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.6
Utah	3.7	3.5	-5.4	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.6
Wyoming	1.1	1.3	+27.5	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.6
Region XII:										
California	84.7	96.6	+14.0	85.8	87.9	90.6	90.0	95.2	103.3	103.6
Nevada	1.5	1.9	+22.0	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0
Oregon	5.0	5.9	+17.2	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.0	5.8	5.8	6.2
Washington	10.0	13.6	+36.2	11.4	11.2	11.6	13.1	13.2	12.2	17.9
Territories:										
Alaska	.5	.6	+12.6	.5	.7	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7
Hawaii	1.1	1.0	-15.1	.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	.7	.9	1.1

<sup>1</sup> I. e., certification that the claimant has completed a waiting-period week, or a compensable period (usually a calendar week or 7-day period).<sup>2</sup> Includes claims for total, part-total, and partial unemployment.<sup>3</sup> Computations based on whole numbers.<sup>4</sup> Benefits for partial and part-total unemployment are not provided by State law in Montana, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania.

PREVENTIVE-MEDICINE SERVICES IN CHILE<sup>1</sup>

ALL the Chilean social-insurance institutions are required by certain laws and decrees of 1938 and 1939<sup>2</sup> to establish preventive-medicine services for the benefit of their active members. They are specifically directed to carry on work for the discovery and prevention of such chronic diseases as tuberculosis, syphilis, rheumatism, and disorders of the heart and kidneys, and such occupational maladies as chronic lead poisoning, anthracosis, silicosis, and hookworm disease. Similar obligations are also imposed on organizations maintaining medical services in institutions not connected with the social-insurance system.

For purposes of greater efficiency and lower cost, social-insurance institutions are authorized (subject to approval by the Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Social Assistance) to form associations and make agreements to furnish preventive-medicine services; formation of such associations is mandatory in localities where, in the opinion of the Ministry, the institutions have too small a membership to justify their organizing separate medical services.

*Administration*

The legislation provides for medical examiners and commissions of preventive medicine, both designated by the directive councils of the social-insurance funds, at the suggestion of the chief physician of the respective insurance funds. Each medical examination unit shall consist of a chief physician and his assistants. The commissions of preventive medicine shall be composed of at least three physicians, of whom one must be a specialist in tuberculosis. Physical examinations of members are to be made by the examining unit and the findings reported to the proper commission of preventive medicine. The latter, or a physician designated by it, will then determine, in cases where preventive rest is indicated, the form of rest and the conditions under which it must be carried out.

In the capital of each Province shall be constituted a Provincial medical claim commission composed of three physicians, who shall hold office for 3 years and may be reelected. Of the members, one is designated by the President of the Republic, one by the employers, and one by the salaried and wage-earning employees. No physician shall be, at the same time, a member of the Provincial medical claim

<sup>1</sup> Data are from Boletín Médico-Social de la Caja de Seguro Obligatorio, Santiago, January-February and May 1938; Previsión Social, Ministerio de Salubridad, Previsión, y Asistencia Social, Departamento de Previsión Social, Santiago, January-February and September-October 1939; Revista del Trabajo, Inspección General del Trabajo, Santiago, November 1939; International Labor Office, Geneva, Legislative Series 1931—Chile 1.

<sup>2</sup> Law No. 6174 of January 31, 1938 (amended by law No. 6422 of September 21, 1939), as regulated by decree No. 360 of May 9, 1938 (amended by decree No. 811, of October 10, 1939), and clarified by instructions of June 6 and December 23, 1938.

commission and of a commission of preventive medicine. The duty of the Provincial medical claim commission is the investigation and settlement of claims by employers or employees, arising from decisions of the commissions of preventive medicine. Employer or employee may appeal to the Provincial claim commission from the orders of the commission of preventive medicine within 3 days from issuance of the orders; in such cases the orders do not take effect until the appeal is settled.

The Provincial medical claim commission shall coordinate the service of the social-insurance funds with that of the Industrial Medicine Division of the General Health Service.

### *Examination and Treatment*

Physical examinations of employees at least once a year are compulsory and are a prerequisite for receipt of optional benefits from the social-insurance funds. Additional examinations may be required by the insurance funds whenever they deem it advisable. Members may request physical check-ups at any time, but these shall be given free not oftener than once every 6 months.

The examinations are to be made in the places of employment, and employers are required to admit the medical examiners and to furnish any requested cooperation, under penalty of fine. The examinations shall be made outside of working hours, unless by agreement with the employer to the contrary.

The principal object of the physical examination shall be to determine the presence of tuberculosis, syphilis, cardiovascular ailments, and occupational diseases; it shall also serve to determine the persons needing preventive rest. It must include, as a minimum, (1) summary physical examination, covering weight, height, general inspection, pulse, arterial pressure, and auscultation of the thorax (heart and lungs); (2) radiological examination of the thorax; and (3) Kahn or Wasserman reaction. If the examination reveals the presence of tuberculosis, syphilis, cardiovascular disorder, or occupational disease, the member shall be subjected immediately to treatment.

If preventive rest is indicated, this is reported to the commission of preventive medicine. In case of diseases other than those covered by this legislation, the social-insurance funds with medical services shall furnish the proper treatment, in accordance with their own regulations.

Funds must provide without charge the medicines necessary for treatment of syphilis and may grant lower rates to members for the purchase of other medicines.

The sick leave provided by law shall be taken in cases of ailments which, although preventing the member from doing his usual work,



are not covered by this legislation; or, although covered, do not meet the conditions fixed for the granting of preventive rest.

*Regulations regarding preventive rest.*—Preventive rest is in two forms: Partial, in which the patient is permitted to work 4 hours per day; and total, in which he abstains entirely from his ordinary work. If, in the judgment of the Provincial commission, interruption of the working day to provide partial rest would produce confusion, only total rest shall be given.

The period of the rest treatment (not, however, exceeding 1 year) shall be determined by the commission of preventive medicine having jurisdiction, and may be repeated as many times as is deemed advisable.

The employer is required to pay the employee at his regular rate for any time worked during partial preventive rest, and the social-insurance fund must pay benefits (at the employee's average rate of pay for the last 3 months) for the time for which rest is prescribed. Such benefits shall be paid directly to the patient unless he has family responsibilities, in which case they are to be divided and paid to his dependents in accordance with the needs shown by social investigation.

At the employer's suggestion and if the commission of preventive medicine so decides, change of work may be substituted for partial preventive rest, provided the new type of work is compatible with the patient's health.

The social-insurance fund member must submit to the treatment prescribed, in the places and at the times indicated, under penalty of losing the right to preventive rest.

The right to preventive rest may not be surrendered; nor (except for specified causes enumerated in the Labor Code) may an employee designated to receive such rest be discharged until 6 months after he has been certified as able to work. An employee who has completed his preventive-rest treatment must be restored to his former job.

Fines (doubled in case of repetition of the offense), payable into the proper social-insurance fund, shall be levied upon employers violating this legislation.

Employees are prohibited from engaging in any kind of paid work during the hours destined for rest treatment, upon pain of losing the right to the benefits accorded by this legislation. The questions arising from this provision shall be settled by the labor courts.

### *Extension of Benefits to Other Persons*

The physical examinations and other benefits of a medical nature provided in the preventive-medicine legislation may be extended to the retired members and to members of the families of active members of social-insurance funds, under the conditions established in the

regulation for each fund. The medical services of beneficence and social assistance, and those dependent on the General Health Division, shall cooperate with the services of preventive medicine of the insurance funds, especially with reference to the examination and treatment of members of families of fund members who have some tuberculous or syphilitic malady, and who are not under some welfare scheme.

In the instructions issued under this legislation, precise directions are given concerning the physical examination and the records and reports to be made by the preventive-medicine services of social-insurance funds.

### *Sources of Funds*

In order to meet the cost of benefits under this legislation, contributions are required from employers and social-insurance organizations. The employer's contribution is fixed at 1 percent of salaries, commissions, and wages. Self-employers (such as riders and trainers) may elect, in order to be eligible for benefits, to pay into the insurance fund to which they belong 1 percent of earnings. The social-insurance institutions shall designate not to exceed 2.5 percent of their gross receipts to cover expense of the physical examinations, case records, etc., needed to comply with this legislation. Under certain conditions the President of the Republic is authorized to increase, up to 50 percent, all or any of the above contributions.

Preventive rest granted in each Province is limited to the amount that the funds available will permit.

When it is not economical for a social-insurance fund to furnish its own preventive-medicine services, it may turn over 2.5 percent of its gross receipts to the Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Social Assistance, which shall arrange for such services in another institution, but the rest benefit shall be due from the insurance fund to which the person concerned belongs. The insurance funds, either singly or in groups, are authorized to set aside money to provide rest or convalescent homes, vocational-reeducation centers, agricultural colonies, recreation centers, and summer and rest camps. Other medical-service institutions not under the social-insurance funds are empowered to use the equipment of the latter without charge.

# Education and Training

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## OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT OF YOUTH

EVERY year approximately 1¼ million boys and girls in this country enter the labor market as beginning workers. The great majority of them know very little about themselves as workers or about the workaday world, because they have had neither vocational counseling nor guidance. Most of them are lacking in basic skills because their schools have offered them either no vocational preparation at all or unattractive kinds of training. Also, most of them are not guided to suitable, available employment because no placement agency makes its facilities known to them.

Realization of this situation prompted the American Youth Commission and the United States Employment Service, now incorporated with the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, to undertake a joint program of research into the requirements of youth in quest of jobs and a demonstration of several procedures for meeting such requirements. The findings and activities resulting from this program are embodied in a report entitled "Matching Youth and Jobs," from which the present data are taken.<sup>1</sup>

### *Vocational Guidance*

According to the report under review, conversation with an average group of young people in this country should make it obvious to doubters that probably no educational or social service is more generally needed by youth in the United States than that "which develops in them the capacity to understand at least the basic occupational realities of the new world they are entering and to know with some measure of realism the occupations in which their individual aptitudes, abilities, and skills can most probably and most profitably be put to work."

### *Vocational Preparation and Placement*

During the carrying out of the joint project trained analysts interviewed employers and requested them to state what they regarded as the minimum schooling requisites for successfully performing specified

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<sup>1</sup> American Council on Education. *Matching Youth and Jobs—A Study of Occupational Adjustment*, by Howard M. Bell. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington, 1940.



jobs. The replies were then checked by an analysis of the particular job and by conversations with foremen and workers concerning the education and training needed for each occupation.

The following statement, based on a sample which includes 2,216 occupations in 18 industries,<sup>2</sup> representing about 28 percent of the gainful workers and believed to be roughly representative of 70 percent of all gainful workers in the United States, shows the minimum educational specifications of employers:

	Percent of occupations
None <sup>1</sup> .....	47.1
Some elementary school.....	7.8
Elementary school graduation.....	12.1
Some high school.....	3.8
High school graduation.....	20.2
Some college.....	2.5
College graduation.....	6.5

<sup>1</sup> Requires, however, ability to speak, read, and write English.

As shown above, about 47 percent of these jobs call only for ability to read, speak, and write, and 67 percent for nothing more than an elementary-school education. For only 9 percent of the jobs was college education or graduation demanded.

The training required "to reach normal production on the job" is shown below for 2,216 occupations in the 18 industries. These data indicate that for 59 percent of the occupations covered it was believed that workers could attain normal production in a week or less, after they were assigned to jobs.

Training on the job required:	Percent of occupations
None.....	8.5
1 week or less.....	59.0
More than 1 week, but not more than 1 month.....	11.3
More than 1 month, but not more than 3 months.....	6.1
More than 3 months, but not more than 6 months.....	5.6
More than 6 months.....	9.6

Although the foregoing figures indicate that a very large proportion of occupations require no highly specialized training for the persons who carry them on, they "do not signify that successful participation in the affairs of tomorrow's world will demand fewer of the essential contributions which can and should be made by broad programs of general and vocational education."

Attention is also called to the great extent in which industry and apprenticeship programs have assumed the responsibility for providing young people with specialized vocational training.

In discussing the placement of young people emphasis is given to "the fact that the only effective way to conserve youth is to use them."

<sup>2</sup> Bakery; business service; cleaning, dyeing, pressing; clerical; concrete products; construction; cooperage; domestic service; personal service; hat and cap manufacture; hotels and restaurants; ice-cream manufacture; ice manufacture; insurance; job foundry; job machine shops; marble, granite, slate, etc.; wooden cigar-box manufacture.

The junior division of a placement agency holds a key position for diverting the energies of youth "into socially useful and reasonably satisfying channels." It will be the continuing and basic function of such an agency to endeavor to place its applicants in the restricted number of jobs they are most obviously able to fill. It can, however, also try to direct the majority of youthful applicants for whom no jobs are available to those agencies and activities which were established or could be developed to aid them.

### *Summary and Conclusions*

In summarizing the conclusions and recommendations in regard to matching youth and jobs, the author makes the following statements:

I. Federal and State agencies have important contributions to make in the development of occupational adjustment programs.

Existing needs require a substantial expansion of the National Occupational Outlook Service (of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics).

The Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the Office of Education has an essential function to perform in the orientation and stimulation of local adjustment programs.

The Bureau of Employment Security should encourage the expansion of guidance and placement services for youth.

The National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps should continue to provide out-of-school youth with guidance, work experience, and occupational information.

II. For practical purposes, the local labor market is the occupational adjustment community.

The local labor market is an appropriate area in which to conduct research.

The local labor market is also a practical area in which to conduct certain operating phases of an occupational adjustment program.

III. Schools should give their students the clearest possible awareness of their occupational potentialities.

Schools should also give their students the best possible understanding of occupational demands and opportunities.

IV. Vocational education is an essential element in effective schooling—its fundamental aim should be to enrich curricula and supplement vocational guidance.

V. Specialized vocational training is not a necessary element in the process of occupational adjustment for all youth—nor is it, like vocational education, a responsibility of all public schools.

VI. The whole adjustment process should lead directly to the placement of the youth on the kind of job he is qualified by aptitude, interest, and ability to perform.

VII. Coordination of activities and agencies is an essential characteristic of an effective adjustment program.



### **APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING CENTER IN HAITI**

AN apprenticeship training school was opened in October 1940 in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, in connection with the Central Agricultural School. The training school is a relatively large project and said to be the first of its kind on such a scale.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Data are from report of Edward J. Sparks, Chargé d'Affaires ad interim, at Port-au-Prince.

The apprenticeship center of Bois Saint-Martin is constructed in a formerly unhealthy and desolate section of the suburbs, and its presence, in addition to beautifying the area, constitutes a definite progressive step in the work of social and economic improvement undertaken by the Government.

The training center is composed of a group of eight buildings in a tract of about 23 acres and has four principal shops providing for instruction in basketry, iron work, butchering, and cabinetwork. Four hundred students can be accommodated, receiving a good primary course of instruction and full occupational training. Gardening will also be part of the program. The duration of the course of study has not been definitely fixed, but will probably be 2 or 3 years.

The purpose of the center is to expand the work already begun by the professional schools dependent on the Central Agricultural School, with a view to the improvement of industrial and agricultural work.



## REGULATION OF TRADE SCHOOLS IN BRAZILIAN FACTORIES, 1940<sup>1</sup>

THE President of Brazil recently signed a decree-law approving regulations drawn up by the Ministries of Education and Health, and of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, for maintenance of vocational-training courses in Brazilian factories.

The regulations were prepared under a decree-law of May 2, 1939, which required factories having more than 500 employees to maintain lunchrooms under Government supervision in or near the factories, and also to maintain vocational-training courses under regulations to be prepared by the above Ministries.

These regulations envisage schools in or near the factories, covering (a) study of essential subjects and general preparation of the employee for his trade, (b) the technology of his work, and (c) systematic execution of the operations to be performed by him. It is stipulated that the training shall include work to be executed for the employer by the student in his capacity as employee. A candidate for admission to the industrial trade schools must be between 14 and 18 years of age, must have completed a primary-school course or possess the minimum knowledge essential to the exercise of his trade, must have the necessary physical and mental aptitudes, and must be free from contagious disease.

<sup>1</sup> Data are from report of Ware Adams, second secretary of United States Embassy at Rio de Janeiro.



## Youth in Industry

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### JUNIOR PROGRAM OF MICHIGAN STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

FROM January to the close of August 1940 the number of young persons registered with the Michigan State Employment Service totaled 43,678, of whom approximately 32,000 were certified to projects of the National Youth Administration. These two agencies decided to integrate their work for the most effective solution of their mutual problem.<sup>1</sup>

At the 1940 Convention of the International Association of Employment Services, the chief of the special services of the Michigan State Employment Service in describing the junior-placement program emphasized the following important characteristics of the scheme:<sup>2</sup>

1. In each of the 52 offices of the service, an interviewer, designated as a junior counselor, interviews and registers all applicants between 16 and 21 years of age as well as those between 21 and 24 who are without significant work experience. The "junior counselor" does not use counseling techniques but does give applicants practical, accurate data concerning jobs of various types, the character of the duties involved, the compensation therefor, the opportunities offered, the requisite education, training, and experience, where and how to secure this necessary preparation, and the prospects of getting these jobs in view of the demand in the labor market and employment trends.

In addition, the junior counselor may furnish applicants information as to the available resources for specific training in preparation for, or to increase their efficiency in, the kind of work they are seeking. In this respect the junior counselor will deem it a responsibility to provide accurate information but will not undertake to advise junior applicants in regard to which abilities they might endeavor to develop to an advantage.

If the junior applicant has problems of inadequate or improper training, health, personality, finances, etc., which obviously hinder his entry into a suitable occupation which he has chosen (or in which he has experience) the junior counselor should be able to recognize the presence of such problems and direct the appli-

<sup>1</sup> American Council on Education. American Youth Commission Bulletin, Washington, October 1940.

<sup>2</sup> International Association of Public Employment Services. Proceedings of the 28th Annual Convention, Kansas City, Mo., May 14-17, 1940.

cant to the agency in the community where the proper advice, training, or treatment will be given. The employment service is not equipped to handle the treatment of these problems.

The junior worker's application is recorded on a special card which allows an occupational classification according to work desired and training rather than on work experience alone. The ordinary basis for occupational allocations would mean that the youthful applicant would be assigned to no occupation as a result of inadequate work experience, and as a consequence would not be available for referral to an employer. This technique of the Michigan Employment Service makes it possible to assign the young applicant to a number of occupations, changing with his changing interests. These primary and secondary applications are placed on file in the proper occupational classes along with the registration cards of adult applicants. The young person is referred only to employment for which he can meet the requirements.

The integration of the junior registrations with all other registrations means that the junior applicant will be considered for each job opening in a given occupation, rather than only for those job openings which are confined to juniors as would be the case if the junior applications were filed separately. Training the employer contact man to present the junior problem to the employer means that the employer is not bothered by a number of specialists contacting him in behalf of the employment service on special problems. He works with one man only and this one man has one more talking point in trying to sell the employment service to the employer.

2. The junior counselor in the local office of the Michigan State Employment Service acts as the sole certifying agent for NYA project personnel in his jurisdiction. Consequently, the young person who is eligible for NYA aid and who is unable to find a job is furnished with a small income, actual work experience, and related training, which increase his possibilities for securing private employment.

Some State NYA programs have not succeeded well because the inelastic "needs" test of local relief agencies have prevented youth who required NYA assistance but whose families were not on relief from being certified.<sup>3</sup> The use of the State employment service as the NYA certifying agent not only makes it possible for a youth whose family has been able to keep off the relief rolls to have NYA benefits, but young persons are not obliged to wait for long hours in a congested intake office with adults applying for relief.

3. The Michigan program stresses the development tools for use in the future counseling of young job seekers. It is the belief of those operating this program that at present no agency has adequately

<sup>3</sup> The 1940 Labor-Federal Security Appropriation Act provides that a youth shall be eligible for certification to the NYA out-of-school work program "if he is in need of employment, work experience, and training." The new definition for eligibility will make it possible to reach marginal groups. See *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1940 (pp. 636-639).

detailed and accurate data in regard to specific occupations or the individual worker's interests, aptitudes, and abilities to undertake "vocational guidance." The junior counselor in the local office talks things over with the young job seeker and gives any pertinent available information the office has on opportunities for employment. At no time, however, does the counselor indicate that the young person should make a specific occupation his objective. That decision is left to the youth himself.

4. The Michigan State Employment Service's Occupational Research Center was established to provide the junior counselor and cooperating agencies with the tools required for vocational guidance. The Job Analysis Section assigns trained analysts to stores, plants, and other establishments to set up scientific job analyses so that sufficient job data may be available. The Worker Analysis Section makes studies of existing vocational tests to ascertain their value and develops and standardizes new tests for use in analyzing workers in the future. The activities are carried out in cooperation with the Employment Service Division of the Federal Bureau of Employment Security.

According to studies of the need for vocational adjustment, such need is not confined to any single group or class of workers. The Michigan junior program differs from the usual placement service for youth, as it is one of a group of special programs, including those for the older worker, the veteran, and the physically handicapped.



## CHILD LABOR ON TRUCK FARMS IN NEW YORK STATE

NEW YORK has its migrant problem, although the workers involved have homes in a neighboring city and do not wander from State to State following various crops. This problem is modified by local conditions, but its basic elements are the same as in other States affected by the mechanization of agriculture. The farms in New York State worked by migrant labor are not family farms, nor are they tenant farms except in unusual cases. The commercialized truck farms covered by the report of a preliminary investigation in 1939, sponsored by the New York Child Labor Committee and here summarized, present an entirely different picture.<sup>1</sup> They are operated by modern industrial speed-up methods.

The padrone system is also found, the padrone or overseer being employed by a grower to obtain the needed supply of laborers (who are for the most part of foreign birth or parentage), transport them

<sup>1</sup> New York Child Labor Committee. *Child Labor on Truck Farms in New York State*. New York, 1940. (Mimeographed.)



to the camp and fields, supervise the camp, carry on the camp store, and direct the picking gangs in the fields. On some extensive undertakings these duties are divided among several men. New York migrants are hired on a piece-rate basis, and their hours are fixed by the padrone, whose orders also regulate the weekly number of working days and the length of the season.

The preliminary investigation of child labor referred to above included farms within 50 miles of each of three cities—Rochester, Syracuse, and Utica.

The number of adults and children covered totaled 764, from 219 families. It is conservatively estimated that there are from 20,000 to 30,000 workers—children and adult—on commercial-truck farms in the whole of New York State.

Children apparently constitute a very considerable part of the truck-farm labor supply. Of the 764 workers interviewed, about half (374) were under 16 years of age, more than one-fourth (225) were under 14, and not quite one-fifth (101) were 11 or younger.

Peas, beans, cherries, berries, and onions were the principal crops, and pea or bean pickers largely predominated among the workers.

Growers were not in agreement in regard to their need for child pickers. Some stated that it was not possible to secure mothers for work without their children. Other growers, however, have carried on for years without recourse to child labor.

Migrating to farms year after year was a common procedure. Among the pickers who had been following this practice for 5 seasons or more were 74 children under 15 years of age (38 of whom were 13 or younger) and 45 boys and girls 16 years of age and over.

Pickers were liable to accidents while being taken in trucks to and from work, and overcrowding on these rides was not infrequent. Interviews at the homes of the workers disclosed that there had been at least 8 truck accidents, in which 19 children had been hurt. Almost a score of parents stated that their children had suffered from bad water, heat, back-bending work, or plant poisoning.

Practically all of the school vacation was spent on the truck farms. Nearly three-fourths of the children (261) were in the fields for 8 weeks or more.

The daily work period of a considerable number of pickers exceeded in length the ordinary factory day, 208 pickers working from 9 to 10 hours. The child pickers labored from one-half to three-quarters as long per day as did the adults.

The prevailing earnings for this kind of piece work were substandard. The 142 families who reported averaged 3.1 workers each. Their average seasonal income was \$127.33.

Only one-third of the families had been on relief rolls before they went to work on the truck farms.

## TRAINING OF LABOR RESERVES IN THE SOVIET UNION<sup>1</sup>

ON October 3, 1940, the Soviet Government issued a number of decrees providing for occupational mass training of boys between the ages of 14 and 17 or 18 for a State Labor Reserve which is expected to furnish about a million trained workers each year. The training is to be done in trade, railway, transport, and factory schools.

The establishment of such a reserve, it is declared, is intended not only to provide a system of labor conscription which will insure an annual increment to Soviet industry, but also to alleviate what has been an outstanding factor in Soviet industrial development—namely, a shortage of skilled workers. Similarly, it is designed to bring about a diminution in the disproportionate number of white-collar workers and engineers. Simultaneously with the above act a decree was issued abolishing free higher education and requiring tuition fees from students in the three major grades of the secondary schools and in the higher institutions of learning. This decree seems to be directed toward the same end as that providing for compulsory training.

### *Compulsory Training*

The creation of labor reserves has a certain relationship to collective farm economy. Steps were taken earlier to correct "anti-State and anti-collective-farm" practices, which enabled many members of collective farms to live on the fruits of their individual labor and do little work for the farm as a whole. Thus, as stated by the authorities, an "artificial shortage of labor" has been created on the collective farms, whereas actually, with proper management, a surplus or reservoir of labor should exist which could be used to furnish needed workers to Soviet industry. The new measures may thus be designed to mitigate the situation which, judging from frequent press comment, is still felt by the authorities to exist, and under which there continue to be too many nonparticipants living on the collective farms. The decree providing for the creation of State labor reserves "obliges" each chairman of collective farms to assign each year to the newly formed schools two boys, between the ages of 14 and 17, for every 100 collective-farm members (male and female) between the ages of 14 and 55. The number of urban youths to be mobilized each year will be fixed by the Government.

Judging from the territorial distribution of the boys to be drafted into the training plan by December 1, 1940, the chief immediate burden of the levy is to be borne by the Provinces in central and southern European Russia, with the autonomous republics of the Soviet Union.

<sup>1</sup> Data are from report of the United States Embassy at Moscow, and *Izvestiya* (Moscow), October 3, 1940.

also contributing. It also appears that the size of the labor contingent diminishes with the distance of the area from the chief industrial centers. The very low figures for three central Asiatic republics, and the fact that the other two central Asiatic republics are to provide no boys at all, are also significant. The labor contingents from the newly acquired areas of Western Ukraine, Bessarabia, and the Baltic States are negligible, as the process of integration of these territories with the Soviet Union is still in progress and the proportion of skilled workmen in each of them doubtless is higher than in the Soviet Union proper.

Special trade schools are to be established in the cities, providing 2-year courses in metal, chemistry, mining, oil, water-transport, and communication work. Railway work will be taught in a 2-year course in railway schools; and a 6-month course is to be provided for coal mining, oil refinery, and building trades. The training is free, and the living expenses of the students are to be borne by the State.

After finishing their training courses, the students are to be assigned for 4 years to establishments and jobs, receiving the current wage scale. Under the jurisdiction of a central office directly under the commissars of the Soviet, a system of local offices is to be established in Provinces, districts, and republics, for drafting, training, and assigning the graduate students to jobs.

A sort of compulsory child labor results from the plan. Children from 14 or 15 years of age are drafted and put through a short period of occupational training, after which they are obliged to work 4 years on the job assigned them by their employer—the Soviet Government.

### *Fees for Higher Education*

The tuition fee to be charged in the higher grades of the secondary schools is fixed at 200 rubles per student per year, in the cities of Moscow and Leningrad and in the capital cities of the constituent republics, and 150 rubles elsewhere. Tuition in the higher institutions of learning will be 400 rubles per student per year in the cities of Moscow and Leningrad and in the capital cities of the constituent republics, and 300 rubles elsewhere. In artistic, theatrical, and musical schools, the fee will be 500 rubles per student per year. Fees for home (correspondence) study are one-half of those for school attendance.



## *Labor Laws and Court Decisions*

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### STATE LAWS REQUIRING EXAMINATION AND LICENSING OF CONTRACTORS

IN THE class of legislation designed not only for the protection of labor but also for the protection of the public are those laws which require the examination and licensing of contractors. These laws specify qualifications as to general education, skill, and experience which a contractor or subcontractor must meet before he may receive his license to do business within the State. Practically all of these statutes have been enacted within the past 10 years, and at present are operative in 16 States.<sup>1</sup>

The majority of these laws apply to contractors in general, but several are more limited in their coverage, applying only to public-works contractors (Idaho, Montana, and North Dakota), highway or street contractors (Georgia), or residential-building contractors (Michigan). In a number of the States the laws are applicable only if the cost of the work reaches a specified amount. For example, in Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, and North Carolina, only contractors working on construction costing \$10,000 or more are affected by the law, while in Tennessee the cost of the work must exceed \$10,000. In South Carolina the act relates only to contractors on work costing \$7,500 or more. The Georgia statute applies where the cost of the work is \$15,000 or more; and in Idaho, Montana, and North Dakota, where the laws cover only public-works contractors, the contract price must exceed \$5,000, \$1,000, and \$2,000, respectively.

#### *Licensing Boards*

Provision is made in most of the laws for the appointment of a State licensing board to which contractors are required to apply for a license. These boards consist of from 3 to 7 members (appointed by the Governor), who are or have been engaged in the contracting business. In Arizona the law provides for the appointment by the Governor of one contractor who is to act as registrar. The position of registrar is held by the Commissioner of Public Works in Idaho, in North Dakota by

<sup>1</sup> Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Idaho, Louisiana, Michigan, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia.

the Secretary of State, in Michigan by the State Corporation and Securities Commission, and in Montana by the State Board of Equalization.

The licensing boards are authorized to designate the necessary qualifications of the applicants for a contractor's license, and may prescribe the form of the application. They also give an examination, where required by the law, and all of the States' licenses issue from these agencies. In Louisiana the board is authorized, after approval by the Governor and Attorney General, to fix reasonable fees to be assessed against contractors licensed under the act. The boards are also given power to revoke the license of a contractor if they find that he was guilty of fraud or deceit in obtaining a license, or has been incompetent in the conduct of his business. Complaint of such misconduct is generally brought by some person within the particular State. After receiving the complaint, the board is required to hold a hearing, and, if it finds the contractor guilty, his license is revoked.

### *Examinations and Fees*

Of the 16 States having laws on this subject, 10<sup>2</sup> provide for the examination of the contractor by the State board before issuing a certificate of license. These States require a contractor to file with the State board an application accompanied by a fee ranging from \$10 in California to \$500 in Georgia. (It should be noted here that the Georgia law covers only highway or street contractors, and applies only to such contractors when the cost of the project is \$15,000 or more.) The form of the application is prescribed by the State board. If a contractor's application is satisfactory, the board examines the applicant to determine his qualifications and moral fitness. The examinations may be oral or written or both. If the contractor fails to pass the examination, he is entitled to be reexamined without paying an additional fee. In Michigan a residential-building contractor who can furnish satisfactory proof of having been engaged in such business for 5 years is not required to take the examination. In South Carolina a person legally engaged in the business of general contracting in the State prior to the approval of the act (June 2, 1936) is exempt from examination; the Tennessee statute passed on March 5, 1937, contained a similar provision.

In the remaining six States<sup>3</sup> having such statutes, the contractor is not required to take an examination. The application must contain detailed information as to the contractor's experience and qualifications, his principal place of business, the value and character of other contract work completed by him, and a complete financial statement.

<sup>2</sup> Alabama, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Louisiana, Michigan, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia.

<sup>3</sup> Arizona, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, North Dakota, Utah.

In Arizona and New Mexico the application must also contain a certificate of recommendation of two reputable citizens of the county in which the applicant resides. The laws require the issuance of the license by the registrar within periods ranging from 10 to 30 days after the receipt of the application, thus giving the registrar time for investigation.

License fees range from \$3 to \$250, and in Montana, New Mexico, and North Dakota depend upon the value of the contract work performed. For example, in Montana a class-A license entitling the holder to engage in the public contracting business, without limitation as to the value of a single contract, costs \$200; while a class-B license, restricting the contractor to public contracts none of which is in excess of \$50,000, costs \$100; and a class-C license, entitling the holder to engage in single contracts not over \$25,000 each, costs \$10.

Licenses issued under the provisions of these laws are good for a period of 1 year, and may be renewed upon the payment of a renewal fee ranging from \$5 to \$100. Generally the licenses expire at the end of the calendar year, but in 4 States (Arizona, California, Michigan, New Mexico) they expire in June of each year.

In most of the States all architects and engineers, preparing plans and specifications for work in the respective State, must include in the invitations to bidders a copy of the act indicating that it is necessary for the contractor to show evidence of a license before his bid will be considered.

### *Coverage Exemptions*

There are numerous exceptions to those laws relating to general contractors. A typical example is the Arizona statute which exempts from its coverage the following: (1) An authorized representative or representatives of the United States Government, the State of Arizona, or any county, incorporated city or town, irrigation district, reclamation district, or other municipality, or political corporation or subdivision of the State; (2) any construction or operation incidental to the construction and repair of irrigation and drainage ditches of regularly constituted irrigation districts or reclamation districts, or to farming, dairying, agriculture, viticulture, horticulture, or stock or poultry raising; (3) trustees of an express trust, or officers of a court, providing they are acting within the terms of their trust or office, respectively; (4) public utilities operating under regulations of the State corporation commission on construction work incidental to their own business; (5) any construction or operation incidental to the discovering or producing of petroleum or gas, or the drilling, testing, abandoning, or other operation of any petroleum or gas well when performed by the owner or lessee; (6) sole owners of property building structures on such property for their own use; and (7) work on one



project by contract performed directly or indirectly by one contractor when the aggregate price, including labor, material, and all other items is less than \$500. Although similar exceptions are contained in most of the statutes, there are several laws in which they are more limited.

### *Penalties for Violations*

Finally, each of the laws provides a penalty for violation of its provisions. Briefly, this provision declares that any person, firm, or corporation who gives false or forged evidence to the board in obtaining a certificate of license, or falsely impersonates another, or uses an expired or revoked license is guilty of a misdemeanor. The punishment for such violation of the act ranges from \$100 to \$500 for each offense, with imprisonment from 1 to 6 months; and the majority of the statutes provide that the court, in its discretion, may both fine and imprison the offender.



## COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

### *Signed Contracts Required Under Labor Relations Act*

THE United States Supreme Court held, in a recent decision, that the National Labor Relations Board may require an employer to enter into a signed contract with a union if a collective-bargaining agreement has been reached. This question has been the subject of considerable discussion and differences of opinion, and the decision of the Supreme Court finally determines that a written, signed agreement is an essential element of collective bargaining. Previously, six circuit courts of appeals had passed on this question and, of these, five ruled that written contracts were required.

The decision of the Supreme Court arose out of a case involving a packing company which challenged the validity of an order of the National Labor Relations Board directing the company to sign a contract with a union. The company had reached an agreement with the union concerning wages, hours, and working conditions of the employees, but had refused to sign any contract embodying the terms of the agreement. The company contended that an employer could refuse to sign an agreement because he had never agreed to sign one. The Board, on the other hand, supported its order on the ground that a refusal to sign a contract is a denial of collective bargaining.

The opinion of the Supreme Court, delivered by Mr. Justice Stone, upheld the contention of the Board and declared that the refusal of the company to sign was a refusal to bargain collectively and thus an unfair labor practice. The Court agreed with the company that the act does not compel an employer "to enter into an agreement," but

declared that once an agreement is reached a contract must be signed, as otherwise the ends sought by the requirement for collective bargaining would be frustrated. The refusal of an employer to sign such a contract with a labor organization, the Court further said, would discredit the organization, impair the bargaining process, and tend to frustrate the aim of the statute to secure industrial peace through collective bargaining. (*H. J. Heinz Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*, 61 Sup. Ct. 320.)

### *Hospitals Held Subject to Minnesota Labor Relations Act*

The Minnesota Labor Relations Act has been held to apply to a nonprofit charitable hospital. The hospital had denied the authority of the State labor conciliator to mediate a dispute and had obtained a court order to restrain picketing of the premises. The Minnesota Supreme Court ruled, however, that the injunction should not have been granted, since a labor dispute existed. The court also declared that both the hospital and the employees were under a distinct obligation to make final settlement of their differences by submission to arbitration.

In the course of the opinion, the court pointed out that the right to bargain collectively under the labor relations act is not dependent upon the nature of the employer's operations. Therefore, although the hospital was open to the public and was maintained without profit, its employment of nonprofessional, maintenance employees brought it within the definition of employer as found in the Minnesota Labor Relations Act. (*Northwestern Hospital v. Public Building Service Employees' Union*, 294 N. W. 215.)

### *Employer Held Liable for Injuries to Pickets*

A grocery company was recently held, by the Georgia Court of Appeals, to be liable for damages to strikers who were injured by the store manager. The store had been picketed in an effort to compel the store owner to sign a contract with a labor union covering wages, hours, and conditions of employment. In order to stop the picketing, the manager had poured certain substances, such as ammonia and pepper, on the sidewalk and had also allegedly thrown pepper into the face of one of the pickets, thereby causing severe injuries.

The court held in this case that the manager was acting within the scope of his employment, since he was seeking to protect the business he was employed to manage and hence to "further the interest and welfare of his employer." The owner of the store, therefore, was liable for the resulting damages, because as an employer he was responsible for an injury committed upon another by one of his em-

ployees and the act was done "by his command or in the prosecution and within the scope of his business." (*Southern Grocery Stores v. Herring*, 11 S. E. (2d) 57.)

### *Regulation of Employment-Agency Fees Held Unconstitutional*

A Nebraska statute limiting the fees that may be charged by private employment agencies was held unconstitutional by the State supreme court. The court declared that the act violated the due-process clause of the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, as it attempted to regulate a business not affected with a public interest.

The decision of the Nebraska court was based on a ruling by the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Ribnik v. McBride* (277 U. S. 350). In that case the Supreme Court held that the business of an employment agent is not one so affected with a public interest as to empower the State to fix charges for services rendered. The State contended that later decisions of the Supreme Court had overruled the holding in the *Ribnik* case; the Nebraska court, nevertheless, held that the industries affected by the subsequent decisions were distinctly different from the one affected by the *Ribnik* decision which arose in the State of New Jersey. (*State v. Kinney*, 293 N. W. 393.)



## *Cost of Living*

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### CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING FROM NOVEMBER TO DECEMBER 1940

LIVING costs in the large cities of the country increased six-tenths of 1 percent between November 15 and December 15, 1940. An increase in food costs and a seasonal rise in coal prices were chiefly responsible for this rise, according to reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. With this increase the Bureau's cost-of-living index is at 100.7 percent of the 1935-39 average.

In the cities where the largest increases occurred (St. Louis, Birmingham, Denver, and Minneapolis) the advances were principally due to higher food prices. Food costs were 1.5 percent higher in mid-December than in mid-November, and 2.5 percent higher than in December 1939. Since food prices were relatively low in 1939 and 1940 as compared with 1936 and 1937, the level of food costs on December 15, 1940, was still almost 3 percent lower than it had been on the average during 1935-39. The increase in food costs between November and December was due to a sharp rise in the price of butter, seasonal increases in fresh vegetable prices and higher prices for milk, flour, cured pork, and lard. Preliminary reports on retail price movements since mid-December show that pork prices generally have continued to increase, milk prices have risen in certain cities, but there has been a marked decline in butter prices. These reports indicate that flour and bread prices have shown very little change, but that marked decreases occurred in egg prices, as usual at this season.

Seasonal increases in coal costs were general. Sharp increases in the price of fuel oil were reported for Baltimore, Boston, and New York, with a smaller increase in Chicago.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of 20 cities, from November 15 to December 15, 1940, are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Change from November 15, 1940, to December 15, 1940, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	+0.6	<sup>1</sup> +1.5	( <sup>2</sup> )	<sup>3</sup> +0.2	+0.4	-0.2	+0.1
New England: Boston.....	+0.5	+1.3	-0.3	( <sup>2</sup> )	+1.6	-0.7	+0.3
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+0.8	+1.5	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	-0.2	+0.4
New York.....	+0.4	+1.2	+0.5	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.1	-0.7	( <sup>2</sup> )
Philadelphia.....	+0.3	+1.3	-0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.1	-0.8	( <sup>2</sup> )
Pittsburgh.....	+0.5	+1.6	-0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.1
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	+0.5	+1.4	-0.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.2	-0.1	+0.2
Cincinnati.....	+0.5	+1.4	-0.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.2	-0.3	+0.1
Cleveland.....	+0.8	+2.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.6	+0.2
Detroit.....	+0.5	+1.1	+0.3	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.2	-0.2	+0.2
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+0.3	+1.4	-0.6	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.6	-0.5
Minneapolis.....	+1.1	+3.4	+0.3	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.3	+0.1
St. Louis.....	+1.3	+3.1	+0.5	-0.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.1	+0.6
South Atlantic:							
Baltimore.....	+0.7	+1.6	-0.1	+0.7	+0.3	-0.2	-0.1
Savannah.....	+0.7	+1.7	-0.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	-0.3	-0.4	+0.3
East South Central: Birmingham.....	+1.2	+2.8	-0.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.3	-0.2	+0.2
West South Central: Houston.....	+0.4	+0.8	+0.3	+0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )	-0.5	+0.5
Mountain: Denver.....	+1.2	+3.2	-0.1	+0.5	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.3	+0.5
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+0.3	+1.1	-0.1	-0.4	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.4	( <sup>2</sup> )
San Francisco.....	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.1	+0.1	-0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )	+0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )
Seattle.....	+0.4	+1.0	+0.2	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	-0.6	+0.1

<sup>1</sup> Includes 51 cities.<sup>2</sup> No change.<sup>3</sup> Estimated from available data.<sup>4</sup> Data not available monthly.

### Changes from September to December 1940

Reports on changes in living costs between mid-September and mid-December are available for 33 large cities (including the 20 cities surveyed monthly). These reports are based on retail prices for the complete list of items priced regularly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for its cost-of-living indexes, in contrast to the shorter list priced monthly. The increase in living costs for the quarter for the 33 cities was 0.3 percent, costs having fallen from September to November and risen from November to December.

Rents in the large cities increased on the average two-tenths of 1 percent over the quarter ending December 15, 1940. Although some increase was reported in all but 9 of the 33 cities, there were great variations between cities in the amount of the increase in rents. Considerable advances occurred in some of the cities in which defense activities have been increasing, in particular in Mobile where rents rose an average of 4.6 percent over the quarter; in Jacksonville, where they rose 2.8 percent; in the Norfolk-Portsmouth-Newport News area,

where a rise of 2.5 percent was reported; and in Birmingham, where rents rose 2.2 percent. In addition to showing the largest net rise in rental costs, these four cities reported the greatest proportion of homes with advances in rents. Rents at less than \$30 continued to show the greatest advance, often increasing when medium and higher-priced homes were being quoted at unchanged or lower rentals. Although only 24 of the 33 cities for which quarterly rent surveys have been made showed net increases from September 15 to December 15, all but 5 cities reported higher average rents for dwellings in the lowest rent bracket.

The net increase of 1.5 percent in food costs between November and December compensated for the declines in prices of certain important foods that occurred between mid-September and mid-November. The rise of 1.5 percent between November and December brought the food cost index back approximately to the September level—97.3, on the 1935–39 base.

Many housefurnishings, affected by recent price increases for materials such as lumber and upholstery in wholesale markets, advanced over the quarter ending December 15, 1940. There was a rise in prices of furniture at retail, which increased in all but 5 of the 33 large cities. Wool blanket prices were higher at the end of the quarter in 26 of the 33 cities and sheets in 20. The most important declines occurred in prices for electrical equipment, particularly radios, vacuum cleaners, and refrigerators.

Increases in coal and coke prices over the quarter, largely seasonal in character, were generally reported throughout the country. In Norfolk, an unusually sharp rise in bituminous-coal costs was reported. There were also marked fuel-oil price increases in Washington, Baltimore, and New York and in the three New England cities (Boston, Manchester, and Portland, Maine), and a somewhat smaller increase in Chicago.

The increased cost of the purchase of automobiles and of tires, licenses and taxes and insurance on those automobiles, was a factor in the rise over the quarter in the cost of the group of miscellaneous items in almost all of the cities surveyed. In addition to these increases, a large rise in domestic service rates in Jacksonville, in admissions to motion pictures in San Francisco, and in the cost of beauty-shop services in Mobile brought greater advances in this index in those cities than in any of the others. Soap prices rose in 14 cities.



TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, December 15, 1940, by Groups of Items*

[Average 1935-39=100]

City	All Items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: 33 large cities.....	100.7	97.3	101.6	104.9	100.7	100.4	101.8
New England:							
Boston.....	99.0	94.7	100.7	100.5	107.3	98.3	101.0
Manchester.....	100.3	97.2	101.1	103.0	104.9	99.2	101.5
Portland, Maine.....	98.3	94.6	99.4	100.6	102.7	99.2	99.2
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	101.7	98.9	101.0	107.1	99.8	99.9	102.4
New York.....	100.9	98.6	101.2	102.7	100.8	96.6	103.1
Philadelphia.....	99.1	94.8	101.0	103.5	98.7	101.7	101.5
Pittsburgh.....	101.1	97.8	102.2	105.7	102.8	102.3	100.9
Scranton.....	99.4	99.1	101.7	98.2	96.3	99.6	100.7
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	101.0	97.2	99.5	108.9	100.5	102.3	101.0
Cincinnati.....	99.6	95.8	103.6	102.3	99.2	100.1	101.2
Cleveland.....	102.0	98.7	101.8	108.1	108.9	100.9	100.6
Detroit.....	100.9	95.8	101.9	108.5	99.4	99.4	101.8
Indianapolis.....	102.0	98.8	102.5	111.3	100.0	99.7	101.5
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	98.6	92.9	102.1	102.9	100.7	99.1	100.1
Minneapolis.....	102.2	100.8	101.1	108.0	96.8	103.0	102.2
St. Louis.....	101.0	99.3	102.8	101.6	103.0	96.5	102.2
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	100.0	95.2	103.2	104.5	102.9	99.8	100.8
Baltimore.....	100.5	96.8	101.3	105.3	100.9	102.4	101.3
Jacksonville.....	101.8	99.0	101.8	106.5	98.0	101.8	103.4
Norfolk.....	100.7	97.1	102.9	105.5	99.7	100.4	102.2
Richmond.....	99.7	94.5	103.4	103.1	100.4	104.6	101.1
Savannah.....	101.5	100.2	101.8	105.0	97.2	105.0	101.5
Washington, D. C.....	99.7	96.6	103.3	100.2	99.3	105.4	100.1
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	101.7	96.4	102.5	117.3	93.8	99.5	101.4
Memphis.....	99.9	95.6	102.4	107.0	94.1	101.6	101.2
Mobile.....	100.1	96.8	100.6	110.9	96.4	102.1	99.3
West South Central:							
Houston.....	102.2	102.1	103.0	106.9	93.1	104.6	100.8
New Orleans.....	101.4	100.5	102.4	103.9	97.4	105.0	101.4
Mountain: Denver.....	100.2	95.9	100.0	106.9	98.4	102.1	101.6
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	102.2	99.9	103.4	106.4	95.5	101.1	102.9
Portland, Oreg.....	101.8	100.7	102.8	107.0	94.6	100.4	102.1
San Francisco.....	101.6	97.9	103.0	103.7	91.5	101.3	105.2
Seattle.....	102.0	100.2	103.7	107.0	94.7	97.6	103.1

¹ Includes 51 cities.

Percentage changes in rent charged white tenants over the last quarter in 1940, for each of the rent levels surveyed by the Bureau, are given for each of the 33 large cities in table 3. This table shows also the percentage of homes at each rent level for which rents were changed over the quarter ending December 15, 1940.

Tables of indexes for other periods in 1940 and further details of changes in living costs are presented in the pamphlet "Changes in Cost of Living, December 15, 1940."

TABLE 3.—Changes in Rents by Amount of Rent Paid in 33 Large Cities, September 15, 1940, to December 15, 1940

City	Percent of change for all rents <sup>1</sup>			Percent of homes for which rents changed		
	Under \$30.00	\$30.00 to \$49.99	\$50.00 and over	Under \$30.00	\$30.00 to \$49.99	\$50.00 and over
<b>New England:</b>						
Boston	-0.1	( <sup>2</sup> )	-0.2	3.2	2.9	3.0
Manchester	+4	+1.7	( <sup>2</sup> )	9.0	12.3	( <sup>2</sup> )
Portland, Maine	+1	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	.9	2.1	( <sup>2</sup> )
<b>Middle Atlantic:</b>						
Buffalo	+7	+2	-3	6.5	5.3	4.8
New York	+1	( <sup>2</sup> )	-1	3.4	2.1	5.5
Philadelphia	+3	+1	-6	3.6	2.7	8.7
Pittsburgh	+1	-1	-2	.6	1.6	.8
Scranton	+1	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	.6	.6	( <sup>2</sup> )
<b>East North Central:</b>						
Chicago	+2	+2	( <sup>2</sup> )	3.9	4.9	( <sup>2</sup> )
Cincinnati	+2	-2	-1.2	2.4	4.2	10.5
Cleveland	( <sup>2</sup> )	+2	-2	.9	3.8	3.1
Detroit	+6	+4	+1	8.2	10.5	7.4
Indianapolis	+1.0	+2	( <sup>2</sup> )	8.8	3.8	3.3
<b>West North Central:</b>						
Kansas City	+1	-1	-1	2.9	5.5	8.2
Minneapolis	( <sup>2</sup> )	-1	-2	3.2	2.3	2.1
St. Louis	+2	-1	( <sup>2</sup> )	1.0	1.5	( <sup>2</sup> )
<b>South Atlantic:</b>						
Atlanta	+2	-3	+3	3.3	1.9	3.4
Baltimore	+4	( <sup>2</sup> )	-2	5.0	4.2	9.6
Jacksonville	+2.1	+1.9	+2.1	16.4	13.8	1.1
Norfolk	+3.0	+1.5	+5	16.4	15.5	4.3
Richmond	-1	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>2</sup> )	.3	.6	( <sup>2</sup> )
Savannah	+3	+2	( <sup>2</sup> )	3.1	5.5	( <sup>2</sup> )
Washington, D. C.	+2	+1	+1	2.4	6.2	5.1
<b>East South Central:</b>						
Birmingham	+2.4	+4	+4	21.6	6.9	13.2
Memphis	+9	+3	+1	7.9	8.9	14.8
Mobile	+5.4	+2.1	+2.0	39.0	19.4	26.3
<b>West South Central:</b>						
Houston	+1	-4	-4	2.3	4.7	2.2
New Orleans	+2	+3	+3	4.3	5.2	7.0
<b>Mountain: Denver</b>	( <sup>2</sup> )	+2	-2	1.7	6.7	7.9
<b>Pacific:</b>						
Los Angeles	-1	-2	-3	1.4	3.3	3.3
Portland, Oreg.	+4	-2	( <sup>2</sup> )	.5	8.1	( <sup>2</sup> )
San Francisco	+4	-2	-1	4.7	5.1	5.5
Seattle	+5	-1	( <sup>2</sup> )	4.5	5.8	( <sup>2</sup> )

<sup>1</sup> Includes unchanged as well as changed rents.

<sup>2</sup> Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

<sup>3</sup> No change.

<sup>4</sup> Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

# Industrial Disputes

## TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates show a substantial decrease in strike activity in December 1940 as compared with November. They indicate reductions of 20 percent in the number of new strikes, 37 percent in the number of workers involved in new strikes, and 40 percent in man-days of idleness during the month. The largest strike in Decem-

*Trend of Strikes, 1933 to December 1940<sup>1</sup>*

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933.....		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934.....		1,856				1,466,605		19,591,949
1935.....		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936.....		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937.....		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
1938.....		2,772				688,376		9,148,273
1939.....		2,613				1,170,962		17,812,219
<i>1939</i>								
January.....	120	203	323	184	139	51,159	72,427	513,460
February.....	139	204	343	204	139	68,252	88,267	553,138
March.....	139	210	349	199	150	43,337	64,660	618,147
April.....	150	281	431	255	176	396,166	425,748	4,902,238
May.....	176	258	434	272	162	95,239	457,407	3,547,868
June.....	162	245	407	269	138	62,534	127,474	958,127
July.....	138	251	389	216	173	175,542	211,548	1,168,382
August.....	173	275	448	272	176	79,670	118,772	1,101,419
September.....	176	197	373	222	151	36,846	103,538	892,485
October.....	151	205	356	217	139	106,628	139,608	1,508,120
November.....	139	178	317	201	116	43,239	130,341	1,664,574
December.....	116	106	222	128	94	12,350	37,122	384,261
<i>1940<sup>1</sup></i>								
January.....	94	119	213	120	93	26,714	41,061	243,917
February.....	93	153	246	135	111	28,613	36,999	284,966
March.....	111	162	273	172	101	22,127	42,734	381,664
April.....	101	209	310	197	113	38,809	52,101	434,089
May.....	113	220	333	226	107	51,884	75,533	653,797
June.....	107	185	292	175	117	35,809	52,797	460,218
July.....	117	206	323	200	123	61,320	79,072	554,225
August.....	123	201	324	207	117	60,031	87,005	681,405
September.....	117	211	328	204	124	66,086	108,059	771,238
October.....	124	218	342	218	124	67,692	103,282	886,594
November <sup>1</sup> .....	124	200	324	189	135	63,000	98,000	660,000
December <sup>1</sup> .....	135	160	295	185	110	40,000	65,000	400,000

<sup>1</sup> Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for 1940 are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates. Any totals of the 12-month data will not agree with final figures for the year.



ber involved several thousand workers in the northwest lumber industry who were striking for an increase in wages. A compromise settlement with most firms was reached about the middle of December.

As compared with December a year ago the preliminary estimates for December indicate an increase of 50 percent in number of strikes, more than three times as many workers involved in new strikes, but only a slight increase in the number of man-days idle.

The preliminary estimates for November and December, given in the preceding table, are based principally on newspaper reports. Corrected and final figures, based on detailed reports from the companies and unions involved, will be published later.



### STRIKES IN OCTOBER 1940<sup>1</sup>

STRIKE activity in October 1940, as measured in terms of the number of workers involved in new strikes and the number of man-days of idleness during the month, was slightly greater than in the preceding months of 1940. Detailed information was obtained on 218 strikes which began in October and involved over 67,000 workers. These strikes, with 124 which continued into October from preceding months, made a total of 342 strikes in progress during the month, involving 103,000 workers and resulting in 886,000 man-days of idleness.

The largest strikes beginning in the month were (1) a 2-day stoppage of 15,000 building-trades workers in St. Louis and St. Louis county, Mo., (2) a strike of about 9,000 employees of chain grocery stores in eastern Pennsylvania, southern New Jersey, and northern Delaware, which began about the middle of October and lasted almost a month, and (3) a strike of about 7,000 truck drivers in New York City, most of whom were out only 1 day.

The industries having the greatest number of strikes in October were building and construction (28), trade (27), textiles (21), and lumber and allied products (18). There were more workers involved (18,511) in the building and construction industry than in any other group, principally because of the strike of St. Louis building-trades workers referred to previously. Other groups having large numbers of workers involved were trade (11,323), owing principally to the chain grocery store strike, transportation and communication (10,982), and textiles (5,527). The industry groups with the greatest number of man-days of idleness were trade (174,664), machinery manufacturing (143,932), and lumber and allied products (118,133).

<sup>1</sup> Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—Strikes in October 1940, by Industry

Industry	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
<b>All industries</b>	<b>218</b>	<b>67,692</b>	<b>342</b>	<b>103,282</b>	<b>896,594</b>
<b>Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>3,003</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>4,452</b>	<b>29,870</b>
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	5	2,031	7	2,581	13,320
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	1	70	1	70	70
Forgings, iron and steel	1		1	400	1,600
Hardware	2	152	2	152	608
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	4	502	4	502	3,268
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings			1	150	3,450
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	1	12	1	12	36
Wire and wire products	3	236	4	266	2,472
Other			4	319	5,046
<b>Machinery, not including transportation equipment</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>2,555</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>9,771</b>	<b>143,932</b>
Agricultural implements	2	79	2	79	1,303
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	6	1,168	13	5,639	92,326
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels			1	531	1,062
Foundry and machine-shop products	4	341	7	990	10,463
Machine tools (power driven)	1	175	1	175	1,400
Radios and phonographs	2	649	2	649	10,514
Other	2	143	7	1,708	26,864
<b>Transportation equipment</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1,921</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>5,163</b>	<b>16,467</b>
Aircraft	1	12	1	12	144
Automobiles, bodies and parts	3	1,675	6	1,917	8,147
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	1	34	1	34	476
Shipbuilding	1	200	2	3,200	7,700
<b>Nonferrous metals and their products</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>1,425</b>	<b>29,161</b>
Brass, bronze, and copper products			1	109	1,744
Clocks, watches, and time-recording devices	1	11	1	11	11
Silverware and plated ware			1	430	9,890
Stamped and enameled ware			2	181	2,944
Other	2	74	4	694	14,572
<b>Lumber and allied products</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>2,409</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>10,901</b>	<b>118,133</b>
Furniture	8	1,050	16	1,758	27,736
Millwork and planing	4	478	5	3,578	29,380
Sawmills and logging camps	3	736	7	4,184	45,510
Other	3	145	6	1,381	15,507
<b>Stone, clay, and glass products</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3,151</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>3,695</b>	<b>27,177</b>
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	3	754	5	812	4,546
Cement	2	294	2	294	4,232
Glass	2	1,427	4	1,654	10,505
Pottery	1	236	2	378	5,154
Other	2	440	3	557	2,740
<b>Textiles and their products</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>5,527</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>10,457</b>	<b>87,102</b>
<b>Fabrics:</b>					
Cotton goods	3	2,596	4	4,296	28,164
Dyeing and finishing textiles			1	121	605
Silk and rayon goods	4	1,881	5	2,530	25,253
Woolen and worsted goods			1	370	1,110
<b>Wearing apparel:</b>					
Clothing, men's	2	261	2	261	5,136
Clothing, women's	4	106	5	185	2,247
Men's furnishings	1	140	1	140	280
Shirts and collars	1	150	1	150	1,800
Hosiery	1	30	4	1,454	10,048
Knit goods	3	303	4	372	5,155
Other	2	60	3	578	7,304
<b>Leather and its manufactures</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>530</b>	<b>9,395</b>
Boots and shoes	1	15	2	245	3,125
Leather			1	285	6,270
<b>Food and kindred products</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>1,351</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>2,593</b>	<b>10,712</b>
Baking	1	227	4	373	3,813
Canning and preserving	4	905	5	1,872	4,051
Flour and grain mills	1	8	2	108	532
Slaughtering and meat packing	2	64	3	93	1,319
Other	2	147	2	147	997

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in October 1940, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Beginning in October		In progress dur- ing October		Man-days idle during October
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	50	1	50	75
Cigars.....	1	50	1	50	75
Paper and printing.....	6	197	7	210	767
Boxes, paper.....	2	47	3	60	317
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job.....	2	101	2	101	351
Newspapers and periodicals.....	1	7	1	7	35
Other.....	1	42	1	42	84
Chemicals and allied products.....	8	2,241	14	3,081	24,689
Chemicals.....	2	421	2	421	5,802
Cottonseed oil, cake, and meal.....	1	80	1	80	240
Explosives.....			1	124	992
Fertilizers.....			1	27	297
Paints and varnishes.....			3	289	5,193
Soap.....	1	125	1	125	500
Other.....	4	1,615	5	2,015	11,665
Rubber products.....	1	810	4	895	3,443
Other rubber goods.....	1	810	4	895	3,443
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	12	1,198	19	2,118	27,662
Furriers and fur factories.....	1	29	4	144	2,148
Other.....	11	1,169	15	1,974	25,514
Extraction of minerals.....	1	337	4	2,864	21,602
Coal mining, anthracite.....			2	2,482	18,365
Coal mining, bituminous.....	1	337	1	337	2,022
Other.....			1	45	1,215
Transportation and communication.....	17	10,982	22	11,336	81,139
Water transportation.....	4	1,582	4	1,582	25,286
Motortruck transportation.....	11	8,900	14	9,022	50,101
Motorbus transportation.....	1	200	1	200	200
Taxicabs and miscellaneous.....	1	300	3	532	5,552
Trade.....	27	11,323	34	11,862	174,684
Wholesale.....	10	1,693	14	2,201	31,622
Retail.....	17	9,630	20	9,661	143,042
Domestic and personal service.....	7	211	13	408	2,844
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	5	81	8	124	1,048
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors.....			1	40	200
Laundries.....	1	104	1	104	564
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....	1	26	2	40	532
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....			1	100	500
Professional service.....	1	215	3	265	4,775
Recreation and amusement.....	1	215	3	265	4,775
Building and construction.....	28	18,511	34	18,834	50,016
Buildings, exclusive of PWA.....	23	17,877	25	18,011	43,811
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings).....	5	634	9	813	6,205
Agriculture and fishing.....	3	1,131	4	1,881	21,342
Agriculture.....	2	1,091	2	1,091	17,432
Fishing.....	1	40	2	790	3,910
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	4	469	6	501	1,607

New York, with 37 new strikes in October, had more than any other State. California had 26, Pennsylvania 22, and Ohio 19. The largest number of workers involved was in Missouri (15,505), mainly because of the strike of building-trades workers in St. Louis. There



were 11,258 workers involved in strikes in New York, 4,697 in New Jersey, and 4,513 in Ohio. The greatest numbers of man-days of idleness resulting from local strikes were in New York (112,250), Pennsylvania (74,465), and New Jersey (70,050). There were four strikes during the month which extended across State lines. The largest of these were the strike of chain grocery store employees mentioned previously and a tie-up of steam schooners at Pacific coast ports which began October 5 and was settled December 4.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in October 1940, by States*

State	Beginning in October		In progress during October		Man-days idle during October
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States.....	218	67,602	342	103,282	886,594
Alabama.....	2	118	4	142	845
Arizona.....	1	8	1	8	24
Arkansas.....	2	71	3	101	621
California.....	26	3,959	33	6,815	68,483
Connecticut.....	4	951	4	951	6,976
District of Columbia.....	5	121	5	121	515
Florida.....	1	104	4	527	8,745
Georgia.....	1	30	2	205	4,085
Illinois.....	14	3,019	19	3,195	30,564
Indiana.....	3	510	11	1,750	24,631
Iowa.....	2	49	3	340	7,143
Kentucky.....	6	1,441	7	1,519	11,773
Louisiana.....	2	450	3	555	3,665
Maine.....	1	140	1	140	280
Maryland.....	6	669	8	3,758	10,469
Massachusetts.....	4	319	10	1,551	7,241
Michigan.....	4	539	10	1,458	10,022
Minnesota.....	1	6	4	1,489	29,534
Missouri.....	6	15,505	14	17,408	64,287
New Jersey.....	18	4,697	28	6,670	70,050
New York.....	37	11,258	59	14,858	112,250
North Carolina.....	2	543	3	708	7,143
Ohio.....	19	4,513	24	5,278	38,567
Oklahoma.....	1	22	1	22	242
Oregon.....	7	1,218	10	1,653	14,522
Pennsylvania.....	22	3,302	31	7,701	74,465
South Carolina.....	3	2,031	4	3,731	20,859
Texas.....	2	363	5	498	2,384
Utah.....	1	10	1	10	78
Vermont.....	1	109	1	109	1,526
Virginia.....	2	185	3	226	2,341
Washington.....	5	409	9	6,661	67,613
West Virginia.....	1	161	3	329	5,152
Wisconsin.....	2	60	8	1,119	14,477
Interstate.....	4	10,802	6	11,647	165,022

The average number of workers involved in the 218 strikes beginning in October was 311. Sixty-one percent of the strikes involved less than 100 workers each, 34 percent involved between 100 and 1,000 workers

each, and 5 percent (10 strikes) involved over 1,000 workers each. Only one strike involved more than 10,000 workers—the 2-day demonstration of building-trades workers in St. Louis, Mo.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in October 1940, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10 000 and over
All industries	218	48	85	61	14	7	2	1
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	16	2	6	6	2			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	17	2	4	10	1			
Transportation equipment	6	1	2	2		1		
Nonferrous metals and their products	3	1	2					
Lumber and allied products	18	3	6	8	1			
Stone, clay, and glass products	10		2	6	2			
Textiles and their products	21	4	7	5	4	1		
Leather and its manufactures	1	1						
Food and kindred products	10	3	4	2	1			
Tobacco manufactures	1		1					
Paper and printing	6	2	4					
Chemicals and allied products	8	1	3	3		1		
Rubber products	1				1			
Miscellaneous manufacturing	12	2	5	5				
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Extraction of minerals	1			1				
Transportation and communication	17	4	6	4		2	1	
Trade	27	10	13	2	1		1	
Domestic and personal service	7	4	2	1				
Professional service	1			1				
Building and construction	28	7	14	4	1	1		1
Agriculture and fishing	3		2			1		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	4	1	2	1				

Over half of the strikes beginning in October were due to disputes over union-organization matters, although in many of these cases questions of wages were also involved. These strikes included about 47 percent of the workers, most of whom were involved in disputes over closed or union shop conditions. The largest was the stoppage of St. Louis building-trades workers. The disputes over wages and hours amounted to 32 percent of the total and included 36 percent of the workers. About 15 percent of the strikes were over miscellaneous matters—sympathy, jurisdiction, union rivalry, and various grievances, such as increased work load, vacations with pay, employment of outside rather than local men, and yearly guaranties on the amount of work to be supplied.

TABLE 4.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in October 1940

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total <sup>1</sup>	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	218	100.0	67,692	100.0
Wages and hours.....	70	32.1	24,118	35.6
Wage increase.....	50	22.9	12,430	18.3
Wage decrease.....	2	.9	58	.1
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	14	6.4	11,425	16.9
Hour increase.....	1	.5	29	(1)
Hour decrease.....	3	1.4	176	.3
Union organization.....	115	52.8	32,100	47.4
Recognition.....	22	10.1	3,243	4.8
Recognition and wages.....	24	11.0	3,462	5.1
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	19	8.7	1,867	2.8
Closed or union shop.....	26	11.9	20,135	29.7
Discrimination.....	13	6.0	1,231	1.8
Strengthening bargaining position.....	5	2.3	1,008	1.5
Other.....	6	2.8	1,154	1.7
Miscellaneous.....	33	15.1	11,474	17.0
Sympathy.....	3	1.4	435	.6
Rival unions or factions.....	11	5.0	1,897	2.8
Jurisdiction <sup>2</sup> .....	3	1.4	159	.2
Other.....	16	7.3	8,983	13.4

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.<sup>2</sup> It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Owing to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

The average duration of the 218 strikes ending in October was 19 calendar days. About 39 percent of them were terminated in less than a week, 45 percent lasted from a week to a month, 13 percent were in progress from 1 to 2 months, and 3 percent (8 strikes) had lasted 3 months or more. The largest in this latter group was the strike at the Century Electric Co. in St. Louis, Mo., where a majority of the 1,200 employees involved had been out for about 4 months. (See table 5.)

About 51 percent of the strikes ending in October, which included a like proportion of the workers involved, were settled with the assistance of Government officials or boards. Employers and representatives of organized workers negotiated settlements for 34 percent of the strikes which included 44 percent of the total workers involved. In about 12 percent of the strikes, involving only 4 percent of the total workers, no formal settlement was reached. In these cases the workers went back to work on the employers' terms, or they lost their jobs entirely when the employer hired new workers, moved to another locality, or went out of business. (See table 6.)



TABLE 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in October 1940

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than 1/2 month	1/2 and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries.....	218	84	47	51	21	7	8
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	20	11	5	3		1	
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	23	7	4	5	5	1	1
Transportation equipment.....	8	2	2	3			1
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	2			2			
Lumber and allied products.....	20	5	2	8	3	1	1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	9	2	4		2		1
Textiles and their products.....	17	6	5	4	2		
Leather and its manufactures.....	2				2		
Food and kindred products.....	9	4	3	1	1		
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	1					
Paper and printing.....	5	4				1	
Chemicals and allied products.....	8	3	1	3	1		
Rubber products.....	2	1			1		
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	13	2	4	5			2
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	2		1	1			
Transportation and communication.....	13	6	3	2	1	1	
Trade.....	25	12	4	5	3	1	
Domestic and personal service.....	10	4	3	1		1	1
Professional service.....	1			1			
Building and construction.....	21	10	5	5			1
Agriculture and fishing.....	3	2		1			
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	4	2	1	1			

TABLE 6.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in October 1940

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	218	100.0	66,871	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	2	.9	141	.2
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	75	34.4	29,456	44.0
Government officials or boards.....	112	51.4	34,277	51.3
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	2	.9	284	.4
Terminated without formal settlement.....	26	11.9	2,661	4.0
Not reported.....	1	.5	52	.1

Of the 218 strikes ending in October, 44 percent resulted in substantial gains to the workers, 33 percent were compromised, and 16 percent resulted in little or no gains to the workers. Of the 66,871 workers involved about 53 percent obtained compromise settlements, 33 percent won most of their demands, and 11 percent made little or no gains.

TABLE 7.—Results of Strikes Ending in October 1940

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	218	100.0	66,871	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	97	44.4	22,198	33.2
Partial gains or compromises.....	72	33.0	35,400	52.9
Little or no gains to workers.....	35	16.1	7,297	10.9
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements.....	10	4.6	1,527	2.3
Indeterminate.....	3	1.4	397	.6
Not reported.....	1	.5	52	.1

The strikes over union-organization matters, which ended in October, were about equally as effective from the workers' viewpoint as the strikes over wage-and-hour issues. About 49 percent of the union-organization strikes were substantially won as compared with 43 percent of the wage-and-hour disputes. Approximately 49 percent of the wage-and-hour disputes were compromised and in 8 percent little or no gains were made by the workers involved. Of the union-organization strikes, 24 percent were compromised and 23 percent were lost.

Of the workers involved in the wage-and-hour disputes 69 percent obtained compromise settlements, 23 percent substantially won their demands, and 8 percent made little or no gains. In the union-organization disputes 63 percent of the workers obtained compromise settlements, 24 percent were successful, and 12 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in October 1940, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substan- tial gains to work- ers	Partial gains or compro- mises	Little or no gains to work- ers	Jurisdic- tion, rival union, or faction settle- ments	Inde- termi- nate	Not re- ported
Number of strikes							
All issues.....	218	97	72	35	10	3	1
Wages and hours.....	72	31	35	6			
Wage increase.....	58	25	29	4			
Wage decrease.....	1	1					
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	10	4	5	1			
Hour increase.....	1			1			
Hour decrease.....	2	1	1				
Union organization.....	116	57	28	27		3	1
Recognition.....	27	14	6	7			
Recognition and wages.....	23	9	9	5			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	19	14	2	3			
Closed or union shop.....	18	5	5	8			
Discrimination.....	17	11	1	4		1	
Strengthening bargaining posi- tion.....	8	3	2			2	1
Other.....	4	1	3				
Miscellaneous.....	30	9	9	2	10		
Sympathy.....	2	1	1				
Rival unions or factions.....	8				8		
Jurisdiction.....	2				2		
Other.....	18	8	8	2			
Number of workers involved							
All issues.....	66,871	22,198	35,400	7,297	1,527	397	52
Wages and hours.....	16,320	3,725	11,228	1,367			
Wage increase.....	14,034	3,528	9,193	1,313			
Wage decrease.....	29	29					
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	2,092	123	1,944	25			
Hour increase.....	29			29			
Hour decrease.....	136	45	91				
Union organization.....	36,022	8,550	22,843	4,180		397	52
Recognition.....	2,833	1,586	1,043	204			
Recognition and wages.....	8,873	2,136	3,466	3,271			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	1,631	1,219	289	123			
Closed or union shop.....	18,693	1,235	16,983	475			
Discrimination.....	1,727	1,583	7	107		30	
Strengthening bargaining posi- tion.....	929	641	288				
Other.....	1,336	150	767			367	52
Miscellaneous.....	14,529	9,023	1,329	1,750	1,527		
Sympathy.....	139	14	125				
Rival unions or factions.....	1,417				1,417		
Jurisdiction.....	110				110		
Other.....	12,863	9,909	1,204	1,750			



## ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, DECEMBER 1940

THE United States Conciliation Service in December disposed of 373 situations, involving 214,947 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 230 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 190,732 workers. The remaining situations, involving 24,215 workers, included such services as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, consulting with labor and management, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 27 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufactures of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 39 States and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, December 1940, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	230	190,732	143	24,215	373	214,947
Agriculture.....	.....	.....	1	2	1	2
Automobile.....	9	105,739	2	2	11	105,741
Building trades.....	21	15,201	19	55	40	15,256
Chemicals.....	7	1,500	2	451	9	1,951
Domestic and personal.....	18	1,379	7	7,622	25	9,001
Electrical equipment.....	3	690	2	302	5	992
Food.....	16	5,385	9	883	25	6,268
Furniture.....	9	1,885	3	372	12	2,257
Iron and steel.....	24	6,513	7	82	31	6,595
Leather.....	4	2,175	1	1	5	2,176
Lumber.....	9	7,424	2	11	11	7,435
Machinery.....	14	5,512	5	163	19	5,675
Maritime.....	6	1,871	3	3,004	9	4,875
Mining.....	1	290	3	3	4	293
Nonferrous metals.....	7	9,765	.....	.....	7	9,765
Paper.....	4	1,254	2	250	6	1,504
Petroleum.....	1	25	10	328	11	353
Printing.....	4	329	2	7	6	336
Professional.....	4	211	.....	.....	4	211
Rubber.....	5	4,695	2	12	7	4,707
Stone, clay and glass.....	10	1,801	4	265	14	2,066
Textile.....	11	3,501	15	1,485	26	4,986
Tobacco.....	.....	.....	1	3	1	3
Trade.....	16	4,016	3	298	19	4,314
Transportation.....	16	1,819	7	2,010	23	3,829
Transportation equipment.....	6	6,311	3	14	9	6,325
Utilities.....	1	61	1	12	2	73
Unclassified.....	4	1,380	27	6,578	31	7,958

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, December 1940, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All States.....	230	190,732	143	24,215	373	214,947
Alabama.....	10	2,742	4	210	14	2,952
Arkansas.....	1	76	1	1	2	77
Arizona.....	1	600	—	—	1	600
California.....	9	3,419	9	133	18	3,552
Colorado.....	—	—	1	1	1	1
Connecticut.....	1	500	1	300	2	800
Delaware.....	1	28	1	110	2	138
District of Columbia.....	11	514	11	2,131	22	2,645
Florida.....	12	1,682	7	7,556	19	9,238
Georgia.....	1	150	2	27	3	177
Illinois.....	18	3,157	14	2,092	32	5,249
Indiana.....	10	6,470	10	735	20	7,205
Iowa.....	4	384	1	1	5	385
Kansas.....	3	2,880	1	1	4	2,881
Kentucky.....	2	241	1	22	3	263
Louisiana.....	10	1,572	2	451	12	2,023
Maryland.....	2	15	4	4	6	19
Massachusetts.....	9	2,989	4	878	13	3,867
Michigan.....	22	112,657	6	28	28	112,685
Minnesota.....	1	6	1	10	2	16
Missouri.....	7	2,169	6	9	13	2,178
Nebraska.....	2	306	1	1	3	307
New Hampshire.....	—	—	1	1	1	1
New Jersey.....	9	2,609	3	113	12	2,722
New Mexico.....	2	205	—	—	2	205
New York.....	7	1,965	10	2,355	17	4,320
North Carolina.....	4	3,015	6	33	10	3,048
North Dakota.....	1	19	—	—	1	19
Ohio.....	17	6,254	7	718	24	6,972
Oklahoma.....	1	546	2	2	3	548
Oregon.....	2	4,482	2	3,002	4	7,484
Pennsylvania.....	25	12,120	9	488	34	12,608
South Carolina.....	1	400	6	733	7	1,133
Tennessee.....	6	2,714	3	1,503	9	4,217
Texas.....	8	9,391	—	—	8	9,391
Virginia.....	2	765	1	560	3	1,325
Vermont.....	1	40	—	—	1	40
West Virginia.....	1	300	1	1	2	301
Washington.....	5	2,925	4	5	9	2,930
Wisconsin.....	1	425	—	—	1	425

## *Labor Turn-Over*

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### LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, NOVEMBER 1940

A FURTHER decline in the hiring rate and a moderate rise in the lay-off rate during November were indicated by reports on labor turn-over received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from approximately 6,800 manufacturing establishments employing nearly 2,800,000 factory workers. The accession rate for November was 4.65 per 100 employees as compared with 5.52 in October, and the lay-off rate rose from 1.53 to 1.60. The increase in the lay-off rate, however, was more than offset by lower rates for quits, discharges, and miscellaneous separations. As a result, the total separation rate declined from 3.23 in October to 3.06 in November. Primarily responsible for the decrease in the accession rate were the usual seasonal declines in automobiles and bodies, in which the rate declined from 9.79 to 4.50; automobile parts and equipment, from 10.17 to 6.29; and steam and hot-water heating apparatus, from 8.54 to 4.12. The small increase in the lay-off rate cannot be attributed to any particular industries, since the only substantial increase in this type of separations was in the radio and phonograph industry, where the rate rose from 2.22 to 6.03 per 100 employees. There were, however, slight rises in a number of industries, particularly in the textile group.



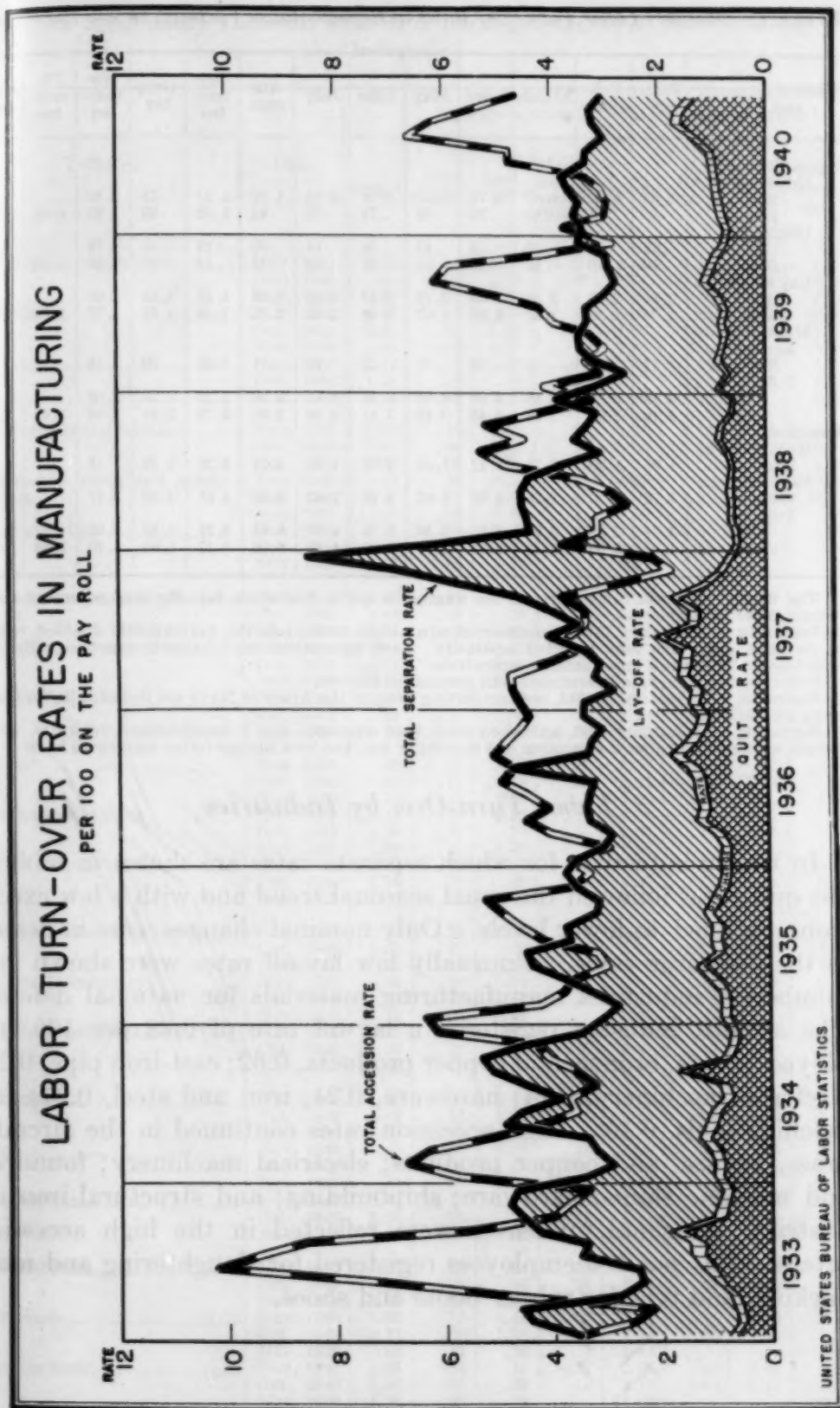


TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 135 Industries<sup>1</sup>

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
<b>Separations:</b>													
Quits: <sup>2</sup>													
1940.....	0.63	0.62	0.67	0.74	0.77	0.78	0.85	1.10	1.37	1.31	1.10	-----	-----
1939.....	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.02	.93	.83	0.69	0.79
Discharges:													
1940.....	.14	.16	.15	.13	.13	.14	.14	.16	.16	.19	.18	-----	-----
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12	.13
Lay-offs: <sup>3</sup>													
1940.....	2.55	2.67	2.53	2.60	2.78	2.32	2.25	1.63	1.48	1.53	1.60	-----	-----
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65	2.22
Miscellaneous separations: <sup>2</sup>													
1940.....	.11	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.11	.11	.21	.20	.18	-----	-----
Total:													
1940.....	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.66	3.78	3.36	3.35	3.00	3.22	3.23	3.06	-----	-----
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46	3.14
<b>Accessions:<sup>4</sup></b>													
Rehirings,													
1940.....	1.06	1.26	1.38	1.42	1.49	2.06	1.94	3.04	2.20	1.22	1.18	-----	-----
New hirings,													
1940.....	1.78	1.72	1.56	1.63	1.87	2.70	2.83	3.59	4.01	4.30	3.47	-----	-----
Total:													
1940.....	3.74	2.98	2.94	3.05	3.36	4.76	4.77	6.63	6.21	5.52	4.65	-----	-----
1939.....	4.00	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84	4.07

<sup>1</sup> The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

<sup>2</sup> Beginning with January 1940, miscellaneous separations, such as deaths, permanently disabled, retired on pensions, etc., have been reported separately. Such separations were formerly reported under the classification "quits and miscellaneous separations."

<sup>3</sup> Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

<sup>4</sup> Beginning with September 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy are included in "miscellaneous separations."

<sup>5</sup> Beginning with January 1940, accessions have been separated into 2 classifications; rehirings, which include workers hired after a separation of 3 months or less, and new hirings (other employees hired).

### Labor Turn-Over by Industries

In the 39 industries for which separate rates are shown in table 2, the quit rates followed the usual seasonal trend and with a few exceptions declined to lower levels. Only nominal changes were indicated in the discharge rates. Unusually low lay-off rates were shown in a number of industries manufacturing materials for national defense. The aircraft industry registered a lay-off rate of 0.68 per 100 employees; brass, bronze, and copper products, 0.62; cast-iron pipe, 0.26; electrical machinery, 0.74; hardware, 0.24; iron and steel, 0.21; and machine tools, 0.10. High accession rates continued in the aircraft; brass, bronze, and copper products; electrical machinery; foundries and machine shops; hardware; shipbuilding; and structural-iron industries. Seasonal influences were reflected in the high accession rate of 12.91 per 100 employees registered for slaughtering and meat packing, and 9.14 for rubber boots and shoes.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries <sup>1</sup>

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates <sup>2</sup>		
		Quit <sup>3</sup>	Dis-charge	Lay-off	Miscellaneous separation <sup>4</sup>	Total separation	Re-hiring	New hiring	Total accession
Agricultural implements	Nov. 1940	0.63	0.20	0.71	0.11	1.65	0.85	2.92	3.77
	Oct. 1940	.81	.12	1.16	.18	2.27	.83	2.97	3.80
	Nov. 1939	.31	.11	.52		.94			5.56
Aircraft	Nov. 1940	2.06	.47	.68	.16	3.37	.86	9.47	10.33
	Oct. 1940	2.34	.36	1.72	.23	4.65	.34	11.42	11.76
	Nov. 1939	1.06	.23	1.37		2.66			13.76
Aluminum	Nov. 1940	1.12	.15	.88	.66	2.81	.48	4.27	4.75
	Oct. 1940	1.24	.15	.66	.52	2.57	.95	4.13	5.08
	Nov. 1939	1.08	.10	.42		1.60			6.33
Automobiles and bodies	Nov. 1940	1.07	.10	2.22	.11	3.50	1.52	3.10	4.62
	Oct. 1940 <sup>4</sup>	1.35	.08	2.34	.18	3.95	2.82	6.97	9.79
	Nov. 1939	.56	.04	.71		1.31			2.56
Automobile parts and equipment	Nov. 1940	1.24	.32	2.70	.13	4.39	1.01	5.28	6.29
	Oct. 1940	1.80	.42	1.51	.18	3.91	1.31	8.86	10.17
	Nov. 1939	.86	.25	7.46		8.57			7.36
Boots and shoes	Nov. 1940	.78	.09	2.37	.11	3.35	1.31	1.89	3.20
	Oct. 1940	.93	.10	2.57	.18	3.78	1.08	1.42	2.50
	Nov. 1939	.61	.08	3.22		3.91			2.27
Brass, bronze, and copper products	Nov. 1940	1.42	.35	.62	.13	2.52	.16	7.09	7.25
	Oct. 1940	1.41	.44	.36	.20	2.41	.48	8.30	8.78
	Nov. 1939	.93	.12	1.11		2.16			5.16
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	Nov. 1940	.94	.28	2.23	.14	3.59	1.26	2.81	4.07
	Oct. 1940	1.31	.26	2.92	.21	4.70	1.80	4.23	6.03
	Nov. 1939	.89	.10	3.84		4.83			3.95
Cast-iron pipe	Nov. 1940	.58	.37	.26	.07	1.28	.17	3.32	3.49
	Oct. 1940	.69	.05	.38	.06	1.18	.18	3.41	3.59
	Nov. 1939	.79	.10	.46		1.35			1.97
Cement	Nov. 1940	.39	.14	1.50	.31	2.34	.27	1.17	1.44
	Oct. 1940	.61	.13	1.63	.17	2.54	.49	1.14	1.63
	Nov. 1939	.37	.12	2.41		2.90			1.45
Cigars and cigarettes	Nov. 1940	1.16	.44	1.19	.17	2.96	.78	1.71	2.49
	Oct. 1940	1.70	.10	.72	.10	2.62	.76	2.54	3.30
	Nov. 1939	.99	.10	1.39		2.48			1.88
Cotton manufacturing	Nov. 1940	2.02	.25	1.04	.34	3.65	1.65	4.21	5.86
	Oct. 1940	2.16	.24	.86	.31	3.57	2.25	4.71	6.96
	Nov. 1939	1.65	.23	1.57		3.45			3.76
Dyeing and finishing textiles	Nov. 1940	1.65	.25	1.10	.17	3.17	.87	4.23	5.10
	Oct. 1940	1.61	.17	.70	.25	2.73	1.33	4.30	5.63
	Nov. 1939	.88	.19	1.31		2.38			2.16
Electrical machinery	Nov. 1940	.80	.18	.74	.35	2.07	.73	5.41	6.14
	Oct. 1940	1.14	.17	.57	.35	2.23	1.08	6.26	7.34
	Nov. 1939	.77	.08	.52		1.37			4.36
Foundries and machine shops	Nov. 1940	1.05	.27	.85	.16	2.33	.61	4.66	5.27
	Oct. 1940	1.20	.22	.79	.16	2.37	.75	4.52	5.27
	Nov. 1939	.69	.15	.85		1.69			5.38
Furniture	Nov. 1940	1.27	.23	2.40	.14	4.04	.71	3.17	3.88
	Oct. 1940	1.44	.33	2.01	.26	4.04	.69	4.09	5.38
	Nov. 1939	.84	.19	2.40		3.43			3.22
Glass	Nov. 1940	.45	.08	1.75	.21	2.49	.79	3.35	4.14
	Oct. 1940	.73	.08	1.05	.30	2.16	2.20	4.38	6.58
	Nov. 1939	.41	.06	1.52		1.99			3.40
Hardware	Nov. 1940	1.96	.17	.24	.19	2.56	.23	7.74	7.97
	Oct. 1940	2.10	.26	.32	.13	2.81	.80	6.71	7.51
	Nov. 1939	1.46	.20	1.45		3.11			4.74
Iron and steel	Nov. 1940	.63	.09	.21	.20	1.13	.61	2.22	2.83
	Oct. 1940	.72	.08	.36	.20	1.36	.58	2.16	2.74
	Nov. 1939	.49	.09	.42		1.00			4.00
Knit goods	Nov. 1940	1.06	.15	1.40	.06	2.67	1.26	2.50	3.76
	Oct. 1940	1.13	.13	1.08	.10	2.44	1.89	2.45	4.34
	Nov. 1939	.80	.13	.93		1.86			2.18
Machine tools	Nov. 1940	1.47	.34	.10	.17	2.08	.52	3.82	4.34
	Oct. 1940	1.53	.35	.08	.15	2.11	.13	6.47	6.60
	Nov. 1939	1.26	.28	.38		1.92			6.90

See footnotes at end of table.



TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation Rates					Accession rates <sup>2</sup>		
		Quit <sup>1</sup>	Dis-charge	Lay-off	Miscellaneous separation <sup>3</sup>	Total separation	Re-hiring	New hiring	Total accession
Men's clothing.....	Nov. 1940	1.00	0.17	4.33	0.09	5.59	2.45	1.85	4.30
	Oct. 1940	.98	.15	3.72	.07	4.92	1.78	2.20	3.98
	Nov. 1939	.61	.07	4.79	.....	5.47	.....	.....	4.89
Paints and varnishes.....	Nov. 1940	.77	.10	.92	.08	1.87	.29	1.64	1.93
	Oct. 1940	.97	.23	1.00	.11	2.31	.55	2.34	2.89
	Nov. 1939	.91	.24	1.64	.....	2.79	.....	.....	1.75
Paper and pulp.....	Nov. 1940	.68	.10	1.08	.18	2.04	.54	1.28	1.82
	Oct. 1940	.83	.15	1.23	.43	2.64	.56	1.88	2.44
	Nov. 1939	.72	.14	1.18	.....	2.04	.....	.....	2.21
Petroleum refining.....	Nov. 1940	.31	.06	1.90	.23	2.50	.53	.28	.81
	Oct. 1940	.37	.08	1.38	.21	2.04	.35	1.33	1.68
	Nov. 1939	.28	.05	2.00	.....	2.33	.....	.....	2.41
Planing mills.....	Nov. 1940	1.48	.31	2.01	.11	3.91	1.34	3.13	4.47
	Oct. 1940	1.79	.26	1.92	.15	4.12	.89	6.78	7.67
	Nov. 1939	1.53	.19	1.73	.....	3.45	.....	.....	3.78
Printing—Book and job.....	Nov. 1940	.76	.11	2.40	.23	3.50	2.17	2.81	4.98
	Oct. 1940	1.06	.17	2.18	.20	3.61	2.46	3.73	6.19
	Nov. 1939	.54	.14	2.64	.....	3.32	.....	.....	5.56
Printing—Newspapers and periodicals.....	Nov. 1940	.27	.06	1.99	.16	2.48	1.20	1.56	2.76
	Oct. 1940	.41	.03	.75	.22	1.41	1.15	1.25	2.40
	Nov. 1939	.31	.53	1.57	.....	2.41	.....	.....	2.26
Radios and phonographs.....	Nov. 1940	1.99	.16	6.03	.23	8.41	1.23	2.92	4.15
	Oct. 1940	2.42	.23	2.22	.16	5.03	1.12	3.77	4.89
	Nov. 1939	1.77	.27	3.54	.....	5.58	.....	.....	4.20
Rayon and allied products.....	Nov. 1940	.68	.15	.49	.11	1.43	.35	1.69	2.04
	Oct. 1940	1.13	.24	.68	.22	2.27	.58	2.00	2.58
	Nov. 1939	.60	.10	.92	.....	1.62	.....	.....	1.95
Rubber boots and shoes.....	Nov. 1940	1.42	.21	.50	.13	2.26	.68	8.46	9.14
	Oct. 1940	1.25	.14	.49	.47	2.35	1.96	3.23	5.19
	Nov. 1939	.86	.10	1.32	.....	2.28	.....	.....	3.80
Rubber tires.....	Nov. 1940	.52	.06	.51	.14	1.23	1.47	2.74	4.21
	Oct. 1940	.57	.06	.90	.24	1.77	1.56	2.04	3.60
	Nov. 1939	.45	.07	.80	.....	1.32	.....	.....	1.81
Sawmills.....	Nov. 1940	1.23	.17	3.74	.16	5.30	1.59	2.85	4.44
	Oct. 1940	1.70	.22	2.54	.29	4.75	1.14	4.07	5.21
	Nov. 1939	1.06	.18	3.57	.....	4.81	.....	.....	3.46
Shipbuilding.....	Nov. 1940	1.32	.25	3.37	.33	5.27	2.62	5.18	7.80
	Oct. 1940	1.38	.37	2.45	.16	4.36	2.15	5.71	7.86
	Nov. 1939	.69	.09	.88	.....	1.66	.....	.....	4.13
Silk and rayon goods.....	Nov. 1940	1.75	.10	2.75	.08	4.68	1.97	2.74	4.71
	Oct. 1940	1.96	.09	4.15	.08	6.28	2.40	2.87	5.27
	Nov. 1939	1.00	.07	3.51	.....	4.58	.....	.....	3.45
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	Nov. 1940	.94	.16	3.80	.26	5.16	4.89	8.02	12.91
	Oct. 1940	.84	.16	4.34	.18	5.52	5.37	4.32	9.69
	Nov. 1939	.66	.12	5.50	.....	6.28	.....	.....	10.19
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus.....	Nov. 1940	1.69	.24	1.20	.14	3.27	.07	4.05	4.12
	Oct. 1940	1.44	.29	.25	.14	2.12	.51	8.03	8.54
	Nov. 1939	.84	.17	1.52	.....	2.53	.....	.....	3.22
Structural and ornamental metal work.....	Nov. 1940	1.24	.13	2.87	.14	4.38	1.96	7.12	9.08
	Oct. 1940	1.60	.12	2.51	.14	4.37	1.80	5.81	7.61
	Nov. 1939	.68	.35	3.22	.....	4.25	.....	.....	8.02
Woolen and worsted goods.....	Nov. 1940	2.64	.11	2.48	.09	5.32	1.52	5.50	7.02
	Oct. 1940	2.40	.16	1.11	.10	3.77	2.21	5.41	7.62
	Nov. 1939	1.32	.10	5.12	.....	6.54	.....	.....	5.35

<sup>1</sup> No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.<sup>2</sup> No break-down of accessions prior to January 1940.<sup>3</sup> Prior to January 1940, miscellaneous separations were included with "quits." Beginning with September 1940, workers leaving to enter the Army or Navy are included in "miscellaneous separations."<sup>4</sup> Revised.

# Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

## FEDERAL WAGE-HOUR LAW UPHeld BY SUPREME COURT

THE constitutionality of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, commonly known as the Federal wage and hour law, was upheld by the United States Supreme Court in a decision rendered on February 3, 1941.<sup>1</sup> This law established a minimum wage and a maximum work week for employees in industries affecting interstate commerce. In a unanimous opinion delivered by Mr. Justice Stone, the Court concluded that Congress could enact legislation prohibiting the shipment in interstate commerce of goods that were manufactured under substandard labor conditions.

The Court also declared that Congress has the power not only to prohibit the transportation of goods made in violation of the law, but also to prevent their production, even when some of the goods produced remain within the State. The power of Congress over interstate commerce, it was pointed out, was not confined to the regulation of commerce among the States, but extends to intrastate activities which so affect interstate commerce as to make the regulation of it an appropriate means to the attainment of a legislative end. The Court specifically overruled the decision of the Supreme Court rendered in 1918 in the case of *Hammer v. Dagenhart* (247 U. S. 251) which held unconstitutional a statute prohibiting the interstate transportation of goods made by child labor.

On the same day that the constitutionality of the Fair Labor Standards Act was upheld, Mr. Justice Stone delivered another opinion<sup>2</sup> affirming an order of the Wage and Hour Division fixing a minimum wage of 32½ cents an hour for cotton-textile workers. The order had been challenged by a group of cotton mills mainly on procedural grounds. Again in a unanimous opinion, the Court held that the administrative process was in conformity with the law as adopted by Congress.

<sup>1</sup> *United States v. F. W. Darby Lumber Co.*, 61 Sup. Ct. 451.

<sup>2</sup> *Opp Cotton Mills v. Administrator of Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor*, 61 Sup. Ct. 524.

## WAGE DETERMINATION FOR STRUCTURAL CLAY-PRODUCTS INDUSTRY<sup>1</sup>

WAGES of 30 and 40 cents an hour, according to geographic area, have been determined as prevailing and therefore the minimum to be paid to workers in the structural clay-products industry who are subject to the terms of the Public Contracts Act. This determination was made by the Secretary of Labor on December 27, 1940, to become effective on January 10, 1941.

States in which the 30-cent minimum applies are as follows: Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, and the District of Columbia. Workers in the remaining States are subject to the 40-cent minimum. These rates are to be arrived at on a time or piece-work basis, and will yield \$12 and \$16, respectively, for a 40-hour week.

For the purposes of this determination, the structural clay-products industry is that industry which manufactures common brick, face brick (including glazed and enameled brick), salt glazed brick, man-hole brick, structural clay tile (including glazed tile), unglazed facing tile, paving brick, and clay or shale granules.

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of Labor. Office of the Secretary. Press release No. 1665, December 27, 1940.



## *Wages and Hours of Labor*

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### WAGES AND HOURS OF UNION MOTORTRUCK DRIVERS AND HELPERS, JUNE 1, 1940<sup>1</sup>

THE average hourly-wage rate of union motortruck drivers in 71 cities was 80.5 cents on June 1, 1940. The average rate for union helpers was 66.1 cents per hour and the average for drivers and helpers combined was 78.3 cents per hour. On the basis of reports which furnished comparable rate quotations for identical occupations in both 1939 and 1940, these averages represented increases over 1939 amounting to 2.1 percent for drivers, 2.0 percent for helpers, and 2.0 percent for the drivers and helpers combined. Actual rates for drivers ranged from 26.7 cents per hour for milk drivers during their first 6 months of employment as route builders in Norfolk, Va., to \$1.413 per hour for drivers of 3-axle fruit trucks in Newark, N. J. Helpers' rates ranged from 30 cents per hour for beer drivers' helpers in Charleston, W. Va., and for freight-truck helpers in Dallas, Tex., to \$1.125 per hour for helpers on theatrical-equipment trucks in New York City.

The term "truck drivers" covers a heterogeneous group of occupations, such as drivers of building and excavating trucks, coal trucks, ice trucks, general hauling and transfer trucks, delivery trucks hauling various and miscellaneous commodities, and express and freight trucks. In each of the many classifications of hauling, different types and sizes of trucks are likely to be used. Each truck-driving occupation and each size and type of truck usually has a different wage rate. Furthermore, there is great variation among the different cities, not only in respect to the commodities handled under union agreements, but also in respect to the types of trucks and the terminology used to describe the different occupations. For these reasons it is impossible to make an intercity classification by types. The data on all truck driving in all cities studied, therefore, are treated as for one trade in this study, division being made only between drivers and helpers.

Wage payments for drivers doing local hauling, or making local deliveries which do not involve sales functions, are almost universally established on a time basis. Most frequently the agreements specify hourly rates, although daily or weekly wage scales are not uncommon.

<sup>1</sup> Prepared by Frank S. McElroy, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

In order to achieve comparability, these daily and weekly wage scales have been converted to an hourly basis whenever the agreements specified the number of hours for which the scales applied. Some trucking agreements, although specifying wage scales on an hourly, daily, or weekly basis, do not specify the number of hours that shall constitute full time. Quotations of this type consequently have been omitted in the computation of average full-time hours and in the table showing the distribution according to hours per week. When the wage rates were given on an hourly basis these quotations have been included in all rate computations, but when the specified wage scale could not be converted to an hourly basis they have been excluded.

Agreements covering route drivers, particularly those handling bakery products, beer, laundry, and milk, commonly classify the drivers as salesmen. Ordinarily the compensation of these drivers is specified as a weekly guaranty plus various commissions based upon the volume of deliveries or collections. Similarly the agreements covering road drivers commonly specify either trip or mileage rates rather than hourly wage scales. All quotations specifying such commission, trip, or mileage wage scales, which could not be converted to an hourly basis, have been excluded from the computations upon which this report is based.

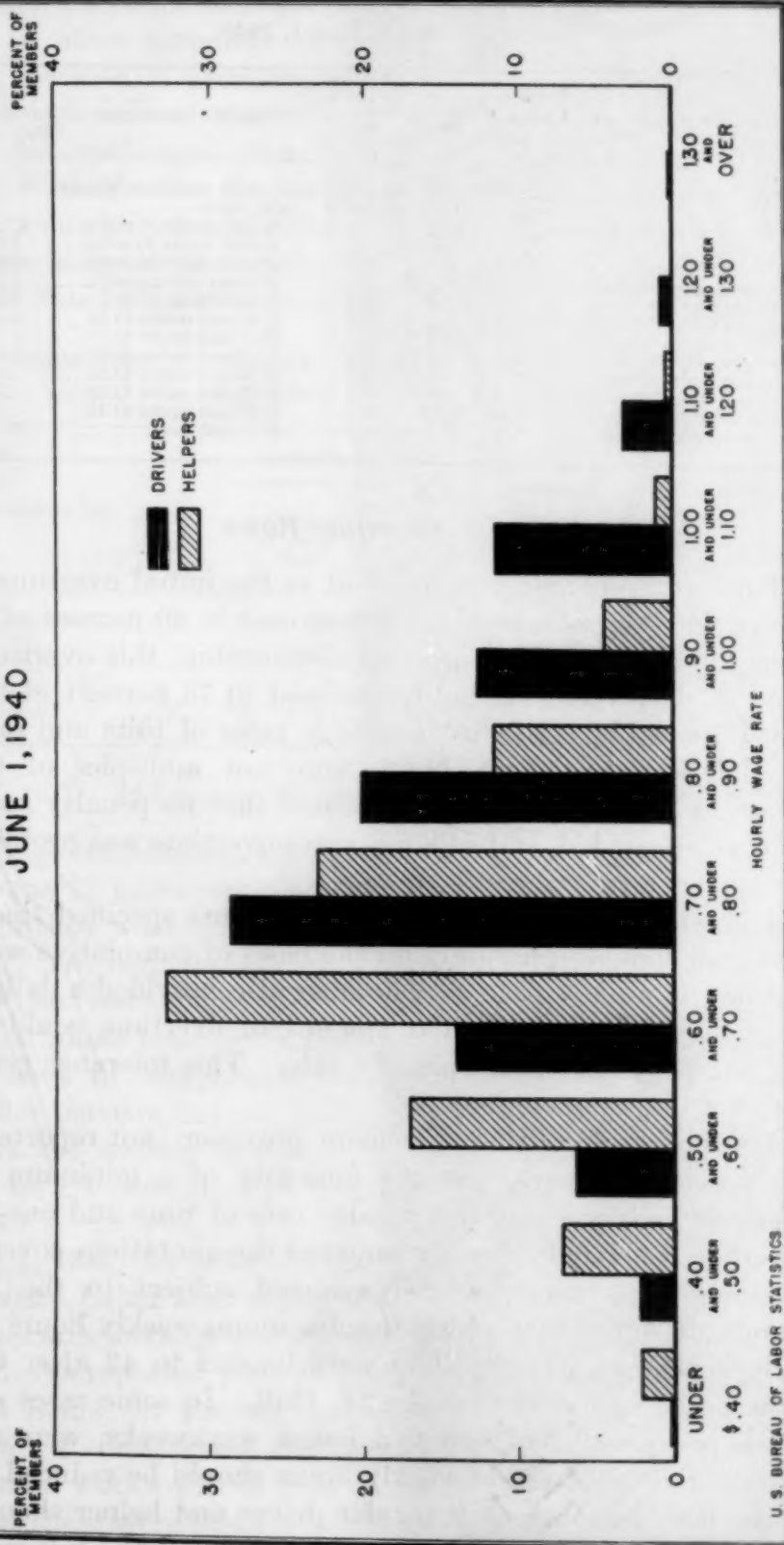
### *Distribution of Members According to Hourly Wage Rates*

Over 78 percent of the union motortruck drivers, for whom hourly wage rates were specified in the cities studied, had rates between 65 cents and \$1.05 per hour, with 41 percent in the more narrow range between 70 and 85 cents per hour. Rates of less than 65 cents per hour applied to 13.4 percent of the drivers, but only 2.4 percent had rates of less than 50 cents per hour. Rates of \$1.05 per hour and higher were specified for 8.1 percent of the drivers, but only eight-tenths of 1 percent had rates as high as \$1.20 per hour. The most frequently specified single rate for drivers—75 cents per hour—was reported for over 8 percent of the total drivers' membership.

Nearly 83 percent of the helpers had hourly rates between 50 and 85 cents. Within this range 17.1 percent had rates between 50 and 60 cents per hour; 33 percent had rates between 60 and 70 cents; 23.1 percent had rates between 70 and 80 cents; and 9.5 percent had rates between 80 and 85 cents per hour. The rate of 60 cents per hour was particularly significant in the helper classifications, over 13 percent of the total membership being reported as having that specific rate. Rates of less than 50 cents per hour applied to 9.3 percent of the helpers, but only 2.1 percent had scales of under 40 cents. In the upper wage-rate brackets, 1.4 percent of the helpers had rates of \$1 per hour or higher and 6.6 percent had rates between 85 cents and \$1 per hour.

# DISTRIBUTION OF UNION MOTORTRUCK DRIVERS AND HELPERS ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES

JUNE 1, 1940



U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hourly Rates, June 1, 1940

Classified hourly rate	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers	Classified hourly rate	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Average hourly rate.....	\$0.783	\$0.805	\$0.661	Percent of members whose rates were—			
Percent of members whose rates were—				80 and under 85 cents...	11.8	12.2	9.5
Under 35 cents.....	0.2	0.1	0.6	85 and under 90 cents...	7.2	8.1	2.2
35 and under 40 cents...	.3	.1	1.5	90 and under 95 cents...	6.3	6.8	3.4
40 and under 45 cents...	1.1	.9	2.2	95 cents and under \$1...	5.2	5.9	1.0
45 and under 50 cents...	1.9	1.3	6.0	\$1 and under \$1.05.....	6.3	7.3	.8
50 and under 55 cents...	4.0	2.8	10.7	\$1.05 and under \$1.10...	3.6	4.2	.2
55 and under 60 cents...	3.9	3.5	6.4	\$1.10 and under \$1.15...	1.7	1.9	.4
60 and under 65 cents...	7.4	4.7	22.6	\$1.15 and under \$1.20...	1.0	1.2	-----
65 and under 70 cents...	9.5	9.4	10.4	\$1.20 and under \$1.25...	.4	.4	-----
70 and under 75 cents...	10.9	10.9	10.8	\$1.25 and under \$1.30...	.3	.3	-----
75 and under 80 cents...	16.9	17.9	12.3	\$1.30 and under \$1.35...	.1	.1	-----
				\$1.35 and over.....	( <sup>1</sup> )	( <sup>1</sup> )	-----

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

### Overtime Rates

Time and one-half was specified as the initial overtime rate in 73 percent of the quotations for drivers and in 80 percent of the quotations for helpers. In respect to membership, this overtime rate applied to 63 percent of the drivers and to 76 percent of the helpers. A few quotations specified overtime rates of time and one-third, or specific monetary rates which were not multiples of the regular rates. A number of reports indicated that no penalty rate for overtime was provided, and in a few cases overtime was prohibited under the agreement.

A great many of the trucking agreements specified that the overtime rate should apply only on the basis of cumulative weekly hours and not on a daily basis. A number also provided a daily or weekly tolerance whereby a limited amount of overtime could be worked without payment of any penalty rate. This tolerance generally was not over 6 hours per week.

A new and interesting agreement provision, not reported in any of the previous surveys, was the guaranty of a minimum amount of overtime each week at the penalty rate of time and one-half. This provision was reported in a number of the quotations covering drivers in occupations which were considered subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act, under which the maximum weekly hours allowed for each worker at straight time were limited to 42 after October 24, 1939, and to 40 after October 24, 1940. In some cases agreements, which previously had specified longer workweeks, were modified to provide that the normal weekly hours should be reduced to conform to the law, but that each regular driver and helper should be guaranteed sufficient overtime each week to equal the full working time specified in the previous agreements. In some instances the hourly rate for straight time was retained unchanged under the new schedule

of hours, which resulted in larger net weekly earnings for the members affected. In other instances the basic rate per hour was reduced from that specified in previous agreements, so that the weekly pay for the new schedule of normal hours plus the guaranteed overtime would remain unchanged from that specified for the regular hours previously worked. On the basis of interpretations issued by the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor it is doubtful whether the latter arrangement complies with the overtime provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

TABLE 2.—*Overtime Rates Provided for Motortruck Drivers and Helpers in Union Agreements, June 1, 1940*

Overtime rate	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members covered	Number of quotations	Percent of members covered	Number of quotations	Percent of members covered
No penalty rate provided.....	338	10.8	292	11.7	46	5.7
Time and one-third.....	40	3.7	26	3.6	14	4.3
Time and one-half.....	1,628	65.1	1,286	63.3	342	76.2
Double time.....	8	.3	7	.3	1	.1
Other penalty rates.....	146	19.6	125	20.7	21	13.1
Overtime prohibited.....	21	.5	18	.4	3	.6

### *Maximum Weekly Hours, 1940*

The average full-time weekly hours in effect for union drivers and helpers in the 71 cities was 47.2 on June 1, 1940. For drivers the average full-time week was 47.4 hours; for helpers the average was 46.3 hours. The higher average for drivers resulted mainly from the fact that helpers were not generally included in the quotations covering road drivers, whose hours were usually longer.

On the basis of comparable reports, full-time hours for drivers averaged 0.8 percent less on June 1, 1940, than on June 1, 1939. For helpers the average reduction in allowed hours over the year amounted to 1.3 percent, and for drivers and helpers combined to 0.9 percent.

On June 1, 1940, the basic workweek of 43.6 percent of the drivers was 48 hours. Other hour scales applying to significant proportions of the driver membership and the percentage of the membership for which each was reported were 40 hours, 12.9 percent; 44 hours, 11.8 percent; 51 hours, 9.1 percent; 54 hours, 5.6 percent; and 60 hours, 3.8 percent. A considerable number of drivers were also reported as having normal workweeks of over 40 but less than 44 hours. To a large extent these were 42-hour scales established in conformity with the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Relatively few drivers were reported as having normal workweeks of less than 40 hours or of more than 60 hours.

Over 90 percent of the helpers were working under scales of 48 or fewer hours per week as compared with slightly over 77 percent of the drivers. Just half of the helpers were reported as having 48-hour workweeks. A limit of 44 hours at straight time applied to 16 percent of the helpers; a 40-hour limit applied to 11.6 percent; 6.6 percent were allowed between 40 and 44 hours; and 5.6 percent were allowed between 44 and 48 hours. Five percent of the helpers had 54-hour scales and 1.9 percent had scales between 51 and 54 hours per week. No significant proportion of helpers was reported at any other scale of hours in excess of 48 per week.

The effect of the Fair Labor Standards Act, at the time of this study, in limiting straight-time working hours to 42 per week for workers in interstate commerce, was reflected in a few motortruck drivers' agreements. The great majority of the drivers, however, as is indicated by the prevalence of hour scales in excess of 42 per week, were considered either as working in strictly intrastate commerce, to which the act does not apply, or were drivers of common, contract, or private motor carriers engaged in transportation in interstate commerce, which are generally exempt from the overtime provisions of the act under section 13 (b) (1).<sup>2</sup> Drivers in the latter classification are subject to the regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which has ruled that no employer of drivers operating vehicles in interstate commerce may require drivers in its employ to remain on duty for more than 60 hours per week, with the exception that carriers operating vehicles on every day of the week may permit drivers to remain on duty 70 hours in 8 days. Furthermore, drivers are limited to 10 hours' aggregate driving in any period of 24 hours, unless they are off duty 8 consecutive hours during or immediately following this driving period. An exception from the daily limitation is made in the event of adverse weather conditions or unusually adverse road or traffic conditions necessitating hours of driving in excess of 10, when drivers may be permitted to operate vehicles up to 12 hours in any given day or days.<sup>3</sup>

In many cases the 60-hour scales specified in the agreements are basically a restatement of these I. C. C. regulations. In a number of the reports, particularly those showing 60 hours as the full-time workweek, it was indicated that the hours specified in the agreement merely constituted the maximum permitted at straight time, and

<sup>2</sup> It should be noted, however, that there are certain exceptions to this rule. Inquiries as to the scope of the exemption should be addressed to the Wage and Hour Division, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

<sup>3</sup> An essential difference between the hour regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the Fair Labor Standards Act should be noted. Whereas the Interstate Commerce Commission regulations specify maximum hours which may not be exceeded, the regulations under the Fair Labor Standards Act merely specify the maximum hours that may be worked at straight-time rates, and do not limit the number of total hours that may be worked, provided time and one-half is paid for all hours in excess of the specified normal week.



that frequently actual working hours were considerably less, depending upon the amount of work available.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Motortruck Drivers and Helpers, by Hours per Week, June 1, 1940*

Classified hours per week	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers	Classified hours per week	Drivers and helpers	Drivers	Helpers
Average weekly hours .....	47.2	47.4	46.3	Percent of members whose hours per week were—			
Percent of members whose hours per week were—				Over 48 and under 51.....	1.3	1.4	0.9
Less than 40.....	0.4	0.3	0.8	51.....	7.8	9.1	.6
40.....	12.7	12.9	11.6	Over 51 and under 54.....	.9	.7	1.9
Over 40 and under 44.....	5.3	5.0	6.6	54.....	5.5	5.6	5.0
44.....	12.5	11.8	16.0	Over 54 and under 60.....	1.7	1.9	.6
Over 44 and under 48.....	4.1	3.8	5.6	60.....	3.3	3.8	.4
48.....	44.4	43.6	50.0	Over 60.....	.1	.1	.....

### Changes Between 1939 and 1940

#### WAGE RATES

Increases in hourly wage rates occurring between June 1, 1939, and June 1, 1940, were reported for 34.5 percent of the drivers and 32.1 percent of the helpers for whom both 1939 and 1940 rates were quoted. These increases appeared in 515, or 34 percent, of the drivers' quotations which gave data for both years, and in 141, or 37 percent of the 2-year quotations for helpers. The few rate reductions reported applied to only 1.4 percent of the driver membership and 2.1 percent of the helper membership.

TABLE 4.—*Number of Changes in Union Rates of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940, as compared with June 1, 1939*

Type of change	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
Increase.....	656	34.1	515	34.5	141	32.1
Decrease.....	25	1.5	21	1.4	4	2.1
No change.....	1,175	64.4	944	64.1	231	65.8

The amounts of the increases reported ranged as high as 53 percent, on an hourly basis, for the drivers and as high as 62 percent for the helpers. The very large percentage increases in hourly rates generally resulted from the combination of an increase in weekly wages and a reduction in weekly hours. Among the drivers, the largest proportionate increases were reported for milk drivers on noncommission wholesale routes in Newark. In 1939 these drivers were working under a graduated scale providing weekly wages of \$39 during the first 6 months of service, \$42 during the second 6 months, and \$43 per week thereafter, with the weekly working time specified as 60 hours.

The 1940 agreement eliminated the service classifications, reduced the weekly hours to 54, and raised the weekly wage to \$54, which resulted in an increase of 53 percent in the hourly rate of drivers with less than 6 months' service, 42 percent for those having between 6 and 12 months' service, and 39 percent for those having over a year's service.

Among the helpers, the greatest proportionate hourly rate increase reported was that of extra helpers on packing-house trucks in Baltimore, whose rate was changed from 40 cents per hour on a 44-hour basis, in 1939, to 65.4 cents per hour on a 42-hour basis, in 1940. Helpers on music-house trucks in Denver also received an increase of nearly 60 percent in their hourly rate, which was changed from 50.3 cents on a basis of 41½ hours per week, to 80 cents per hour for a 35-hour week.

TABLE 5.—*Number and Percent of Increases in Union Rates of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940 as Compared with 1939*

Increases of—	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
Less than 5 percent.....	239	14.7	204	15.7	35	9.6
5 and under 10 percent.....	247	14.6	181	14.2	66	16.7
10 and under 15 percent.....	86	2.2	69	2.0	17	3.3
15 and under 20 percent.....	31	1.0	22	1.0	9	1.0
20 and under 25 percent.....	21	1.0	17	1.1	4	.6
25 and under 30 percent.....	12	.2	12	.2		
30 percent and over.....	20	.4	10	.3	10	.9

#### MAXIMUM WEEKLY HOURS

The scales of weekly hours reported for 90 percent of the membership included in the quotations which gave data for both years were the same in 1940 as they had been in 1939. Reductions in the maximum weekly hours permitted without payment for overtime were reported in slightly over 14 percent of the quotations, applying to 8.9 percent of the drivers and to 10.4 percent of the helpers. Increases in allowed weekly hours were reported in 12 quotations, but these increases affected only a half of 1 percent of the drivers and less than a tenth of 1 percent of the helpers.

TABLE 6.—*Number of Changes in Union Hours of Motortruck Drivers and Helpers and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940, as Compared with June 1, 1939*

Type of change	Drivers and helpers		Drivers		Helpers	
	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected	Number of quotations	Percent of members affected
Increase.....	12	0.5	9	0.5	3	(1)
Decrease.....	261	9.1	206	8.9	55	10.4
No change.....	1,537	90.4	1,226	90.6	311	89.6

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

### *Trend of Wage and Hour Scales*

Data based upon comparable quotations for the trucking industry, from which inferences relating to trends may be drawn, are available only for the past 4 years. Since 1936, however, the movement of wage rates has been consistently upward and that of allowed weekly hours has been generally downward.

In 1937 the wage rates of union truck drivers and helpers were 6.6 percent higher on the average than in 1936. The 1938 survey showed an average increase of 3.6 percent over 1937, and in 1939 the reports indicated a further rise of 2.2 percent over 1938. Proportionately, the rise of 2.0 percent between June 1, 1939, and June 1, 1940, indicated by the reports upon which this study is based, was less than that shown in any of the 3 preceding years.

The year-to-year changes in allowed weekly hours since 1936 have all been small. In 1937 the weekly hours of drivers and helpers, on the average, were 0.9 percent less than in 1936. In 1938 the average was unchanged from 1937, but in 1939 the reports indicated an average decline of 0.9 percent from 1938. Similarly the comparable reports obtained in 1940 indicated a further decrease of 0.9 percent from the average allowed hours of 1939.

### *Scope and Method of the Study*

This study is one of a series of annual surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics covering union scales in various trades in the principal cities of the United States. Seventy-two cities, in 40 States and the District of Columbia, were visited by agents of the Bureau. Effective union agreements providing wage and hour scales for truck drivers and their helpers were reported in 71 of the cities visited.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>4</sup> Following is a list of the cities visited. Effective union scales for one or more classifications of drivers were reported in each city except Jackson, Miss.

Atlanta, Ga.  
Baltimore, Md.  
Birmingham, Ala.  
Boston, Mass.  
Buffalo, N. Y.  
Butte, Mont.  
Charleston, S. C.  
Charleston, W. Va.  
Charlotte, N. C.  
Chicago, Ill.  
Cincinnati, Ohio  
Cleveland, Ohio  
Columbus, Ohio  
Dallas, Tex.  
Davenport, Iowa  
Dayton, Ohio  
Denver, Colo.  
Des Moines, Iowa  
Detroit, Mich.  
Duluth, Minn.  
El Paso, Tex.  
Erie, Penna.  
Grand Rapids, Mich.  
Houston, Tex.

Indianapolis, Ind.  
Jackson, Miss.  
Jacksonville, Fla.  
Kansas City, Mo.  
Little Rock, Ark.  
Los Angeles, Calif.  
Louisville, Ky.  
Madison, Wis.  
Manchester, N. H.  
Memphis, Tenn.  
Milwaukee, Wis.  
Minneapolis, Minn.  
Moline, Ill.  
Nashville, Tenn.  
Newark, N. J.  
New Haven, Conn.  
New Orleans, La.  
New York, N. Y.  
Norfolk, Va.  
Oklahoma City, Okla.  
Omaha, Nebr.  
Peoria, Ill.  
Philadelphia, Pa.  
Phoenix, Ariz.

Pittsburgh, Pa.  
Portland, Maine  
Portland, Oreg.  
Providence, R. I.  
Reading, Pa.  
Richmond, Va.  
Rochester, N. Y.  
Rock Island, Ill.  
St. Louis, Mo.  
St. Paul, Minn.  
Salt Lake City, Utah  
San Antonio, Tex.  
San Francisco, Calif.  
Scranton, Pa.  
Seattle, Wash.  
South Bend, Ind.  
Spokane, Wash.  
Springfield, Mass.  
Toledo, Ohio  
Washington, D. C.  
Wichita, Kans.  
Worcester, Mass.  
York, Pa.  
Youngstown, Ohio



The Bureau's agents collected the data in personal interviews with some responsible official of each local union included in the study. Each scale was verified by the union official interviewed, and was further checked by comparison with the written agreements when copies were available. Interviews were obtained with 494 union representatives, and 2,181 quotations of hourly rates were received, 1,856 of which included comparable information for both 1939 and 1940.<sup>5</sup> The union membership covered by these contractual scales of wages and hours consisted of 179,035 drivers and 32,183 helpers, of whom 168,322 drivers and 28,834 helpers were included in the reports which gave comparable rates and hours for 1939. All of the data were collected as of June 1.

*Averages.*—The averages and percents of change given in this report are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions. Each scale was multiplied by the number of members to whom it was reported to apply. The resulting aggregates were added and their sum was divided by the total number of members used in the weighting. The result is the weighted average. The average thus reflects not only the actual scales of wages and hours provided in union agreements, but also the number of members benefiting from those scales.

The percent of change from the previous year is the ratio of similar aggregates computed from the scales quoted for identical unions and occupational classifications in both years. The weights in both of the aggregates used in each year-to-year comparison were the membership figures reported in the second year.

Because of changes in coverage, the averages should not be compared from year to year for the purpose of determining trend. For trend purposes the percents of change should be used since these are computed only from comparable quotations and the influence of changes in coverage has been eliminated. For comparison of the wage and hour scales of union truck drivers or helpers with those of other trades at a given time, the averages should be used.

<sup>5</sup> Additional reports covering drivers and helpers who are paid on a commission, trip, or mileage basis were secured in nearly all cities. These wage scales applied to over 100,000 drivers and helpers. The commission scales have not been included in the data summarized above. Information concerning such scales in particular cities will be furnished upon request.

## HOURS AND EARNINGS IN CANNING AND PRESERVING INDUSTRIES, 1937 TO 1939

By *BERTHA M. NIENBURG, U. S. Women's Bureau*

CANNERIES packing vegetables and deciduous fruits in 1937 operated only from 5 to 8 weeks on the average when one seasonal product was canned, and from 11 to 49 weeks when one or more seasonal or nonseasonal products were added. Sixty-four percent of the workers had less than 8 weeks' employment in the year. Only 5 percent of the workers earned as much as \$600 during the year. Average hourly earnings of men in the 1938 season ranged from 33.6 to 52.5 cents, and of women from 24.2 to 45.0 cents, according to product.

Pineapple canneries and plants engaged in cold packing of berries and fruits and the preparation of frosted fruits and vegetables also have short operating seasons, but establishments which can citrus fruits and juices and pack dried fruit are in operation for comparatively longer periods of the year. Hourly earnings in these industries in 1939 averaged from 25 to 35 cents for large proportions of the workers. In some States average earnings were above 40 cents an hour.

These facts and the following data were revealed in a survey of the canning and preserving industries made in 1938 and 1939 by the United States Women's Bureau.<sup>1</sup> The survey covered 693 plants in 19 States<sup>2</sup> in 1939 and 4 plants in Hawaii. The maximum number employed in these plants was 153,328, representing nearly half of the workers in the industry. Besides information for the seasons of 1938 and 1939, data for weeks worked and total earnings for all workers for the entire year 1937 were obtained from pay-roll records. The following canning and preserving industries were covered: Canning of vegetables and deciduous fruits, citrus fruits and juices, and pineapples; packing of dried fruits; and cold packing or freezing of fruits and vegetables.

### *Description of the Industries*

Vegetable and deciduous-fruit canneries are found in widely different places, such as on the water front, near a railway freight terminal, or in a field several miles from a town. Over half of the 594 plants whose location was reported were in rural areas with a population under 2,500. The produce canned may be procured by the canneries

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bull. No. 176: Application of Labor Legislation to the Fruit and Vegetable Canning and Preserving Industries. Washington 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Arkansas, California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.

in part from their own farms, contracted for with farmers at the planting or fruit-growing season, or bought from a number of farmers when the crop ripens.

The general processes in fruit and vegetable canning are the same for all products. In the best-equipped canneries there is little hand labor, machines and mechanical conveyors being employed almost exclusively. In plants with the least equipment, where produce and cans must be trucked from one process to another, hand trucking becomes important. The work in the preparation department varies according to the product, and this affects the number of workers employed in a plant.

The number of seasonal products canned determines the number of weeks in which canning is done. When nonseasonal products are added, the number of weeks of operation is greatly increased. Peak loads are common in all seasonal-product canneries, but heavy deliveries of perishable products occur generally during a period of 2 or 3 weeks only. Most plants which can only one seasonal vegetable are closed for half the year. Canneries handling 2 seasonal vegetables provide some employment for 43 weeks a year, and establishments which can seasonal and nonseasonal vegetables, and seasonal and nonseasonal products of all kinds, give work to some employees for an average of 50 and 52 weeks, respectively.

Cold packing of berries and fruits for the use of jam and preserve manufacturers, pie bakers, ice-cream makers, and soda-fountain supply houses has been done for many years. Frosted fruits and vegetables, however, are a recent product. Data were obtained for an active week's operation in 1939 for 55 plants in 9 States,<sup>3</sup> employing 7,965 workers. Forty-six of these plants packed fruit for cold storage and 9 prepared quick-freeze or frosted products. All frosted fruit and vegetable packers and many cold packers are canners, and the processes of preparation of the products are the same as for canning.

Almost all the canning of citrus fruits and juices is done in three States—Florida, Texas, and California. Data were gathered from 45 plants in these States, which employed a total of 6,714 persons in a week of active operations in 1939. The canning season for these products is a comparatively long one. In California citrus canning is a year-round industry, because lemons are a year-round fruit and the seasons for navel and Valencia oranges overlap. There was an average of 51 canning weeks in 1939 and of 52 weeks in 1938, canning days averaging 300 in each year. In 1939 Florida citrus canneries averaged 30 weeks and 151 days, and Texas canneries, 16 weeks and 87 days.

<sup>3</sup> Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Oregon, Tennessee, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.



In 1938 there was an average of only 113 days in Florida and 74 days in Texas.

The dried-fruit industry is concentrated in California, though some prunes are packed in other Pacific Coast States, and apples are dried in a number of sections of the country. The study included 41 dried-fruit packing plants which, on the basis of United States census figures for 1937, packed over three-fifths of the dried fruit in the country and employed 7,237 persons.

The length of the operating season for dried-fruit packing was reported for 1937 by 27 plants. For 26 plants it was three-fourths of the year and for 1 plant less than half of the year. Plants for the evaporation of apples had much shorter operating seasons. Nine plants reported weeks over which drying and packing were done, as follows: 3 plants, 10 but under 14 weeks; 1 plant, 30 days in 14 weeks; 4 plants, 72 days in 15 and under 26 weeks; and 1 plant, 108 days in 29 weeks. There is no sharp peak of production in dried-fruit packing, but operation becomes more intensive toward the end of summer.

The survey of Hawaiian pineapple canneries covered two large Honolulu canneries and two smaller canneries on the island of Maui. The three canneries reporting days on which canning was done operated 214 days, 122 days, and 69 days, respectively, in 1938. There is a busy season of about 8 weeks in midsummer, when canneries run at full speed, with two or three shifts a day, and frequently for 7 days a week. In two canneries which furnished data for the year, more than 6,000 workers worked in 12 weeks and more than 9,000 in 8 of these weeks. In the peak week 11,613 persons were employed.

About two-fifths of the men and of the women employed who were covered in the study were Japanese, and one-fifth of the women and one-seventh of the men were Chinese. Seven percent of the men and 14 percent of the women were Hawaiians. Caucasians comprised 13 percent of the men and about 10 percent of the women. Filipinos and Koreans were also represented among the employees. The report states that "earnings by race, in unpublished figures, indicate that racial equality where earning opportunity is concerned, is a practice as well as a policy."

### *Hours Worked*

Women comprise about 30 to 70 percent of the productive workers in the vegetable and deciduous-fruit canneries, depending on the product canned. Their hours affect the hours of men, as the occupations of both men and women are essential parts of a continuous process.

Peak periods of operation, although generally of short duration, result in very long hours for large proportions of the workers on perishable products in many States. In the 1939 season the following proportions of the labor force worked more than 56 hours in a week: Tomatoes and tomato products, from 5 percent in Arkansas to 47 percent in New York; peas, from 7 percent in Iowa to about 50 percent in Minnesota; corn, from 31 percent in Indiana and Minnesota to 56 percent in New York; and green beans, from 17 percent in California and New York to 55 percent in Iowa. At the same time there were many employees who worked under 40 hours.

In Washington and Oregon, outstanding States in the cold-preserving industries which handle practically all varieties of such products, the majority (66 and 54 percent, respectively) of the workers worked less than 40 hours a week in the busy season of 1939. Only 6 percent of the workers in Oregon and 14 percent in Washington worked more than 56 hours. A large proportion of the workers in Virginia (51.0 percent) worked longer than 56 hours. In New York State 44 percent of the employees, and in Michigan cold-packing of cherries and berries, over 41 percent worked over 56 hours; 38 percent of the workers in Michigan, however, worked less than 40 hours.

In Texas about half the workers in citrus-fruit-juice plants and over a third of those in citrus-fruit plants worked over 56 hours in the week reported in 1939. For Florida comparable percentages were 41 and 14, respectively. One-sixth (16.6 percent) of the workers in California juice plants worked over 56 hours. In both Florida and Texas a larger proportion of workers in rural plants than in towns of 2,500 or over worked 60 hours or more.

In 1939 only 3 percent of the dried-fruit-packing workers in California worked over 56 hours in the week recorded, as compared with 12 percent in 1938. The percentage working over 44 hours was 11 in 1939, as compared with 64 in 1938. This large decrease is of interest, as some plants may have been subject in 1939 to the 44-hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Eight percent of the workers in evaporating plants in Washington worked over 56 hours in 1939, whereas there were 15 percent in 1938 working such long hours. New York plants had a decrease in the percentage of employees working over 56 hours from 20 in 1938 to 11 in 1939.

A percentage distribution of the employees in these canning industries, by hours worked in the week recorded and by product, is presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Employees in Canning and Preserving, by Weekly Hours Worked and by Product

Product and year	Hours worked in pay-roll week recorded													
	Under 40	40	Over 40, under 42	42	Over 42, under 44	44	Over 44, under 48	48	Over 48, under 56	56	Over 56, under 60	60, under 80	80 and over	To- tal
Vegetables and deciduous fruits (1938, women only):														
Tomatoes and tomato products.....	52.8	0.6	6.0	0.3	2.7	0.6	6.7	0.4	13.0	0.4	4.6	11.2	0.7	100.0
Corn.....	40.9	.6	2.9	.2	4.3	.7	7.1	1.0	20.6	.5	5.4	13.6	2.2	100.0
Peas.....	63.9	.7	2.5	.7	2.9	.5	8.2	.4	8.5	.4	3.1	7.2	1.0	100.0
Green beans.....	45.7	.5	2.6	.5	3.0	.8	11.3	1.9	24.3	.3	3.0	5.7	.3	100.0
Spinach.....	61.0	.3	1.5	.4	1.2	.4	14.5	3.8	9.1	.4	6.2	1.2		100.0
Asparagus.....	68.9	1.8	8.5	1.9	5.2	.7	8.0	.5	3.0	(1)	.9	.5		100.0
Sauerkraut.....	32.0	.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.4	24.8	2.3	29.5		.4	2.4	.1	100.0
Pickles.....	35.6	10.8	15.2	1.0	11.6	.3	16.4	.8	8.3					100.0
Olives.....	54.7	2.8	1.4	.7	17.5	.7	8.8	.3	12.1	1.1				100.0
Fruits, large.....	48.7	1.7	4.2	.7	4.2	.5	10.5	1.7	16.0	1.3	5.6	4.8	(1)	100.0
Fruits, small.....	54.0	.3	2.7	.4	17.3	1.4	12.1	1.4	8.8		.6	1.0		100.0
Jams and Jellies <sup>2</sup> .....	38.4	26.6	5.6	.2	3.1	4.0	12.8	1.7	5.3		.3	2.0		100.0
Pork and beans.....	74.3	2.8	.5		4.1	1.4	12.4	2.3	1.8	.5				100.0
Cold-preserving plants— all products (1939).....	48.3	.5	3.4	.6	3.6	1.5	5.9	.5	8.5	1.0	4.9	15.7	5.7	100.0
Citrus-fruit products (1939):														
Citrus fruits.....	28.7	1.5	2.0	7.0	8.3	.4	34.8	(1)	(1)	.7	16.8	(1)	(1)	100.0
Citrus-fruit juices.....	30.6	.4	1.9	1.2	2.5	1.7	20.6	(1)	(1)	2.6	38.6	(1)	(1)	100.0
Citrus fruits and juices.....	25.5	.6	1.1	.6	.7		47.2	(1)	(1)	.2	24.0	(1)	(1)	100.0
Dried fruit (1939).....	26.1	5.6	2.8	2.9	4.8	40.2	5.1	1.5	6.1	1.1	.7	2.6	.6	100.0

<sup>1</sup> Less than a tenth of 1 percent.<sup>2</sup> Includes preserves and fruit juices.<sup>3</sup> Percent working over 44 but under 56 hours.<sup>4</sup> Not shown separately for this product.<sup>5</sup> Percent working over 56 hours.

Even in a peak period a large proportion of the workers in pineapple canneries worked less than 44 hours, and a very small proportion of the women worked 48 hours or over. The schedule of hours in all pineapple canneries was an 8-hour day for 5 days and 4 hours on Saturday, making a 44-hour week. Time in excess of this was usually paid for at the rate of time and a half or double time. A percentage distribution of men and women according to hours worked in 1939 is here given:

	Women (per- cent)	Men (per- cent)
Under 20 hours.....	3.6	2.6
20 and under 30 hours.....	4.7	4.4
30 and under 40 hours.....	18.6	14.8
40 and under 42 hours.....	7.3	13.3
42 and under 44 hours.....	40.6	11.4
44 and under 46 hours.....	5.2	11.5
46 and under 48 hours.....	17.3	12.3
48 and under 50 hours.....	1.5	10.1
50 hours and over.....	1.3	19.6



### *Hourly Earnings*

Average hourly earnings of men in the 1938 season in vegetable and deciduous-fruit canneries ranged from 33.6 cents in the canning of green beans to 52.5 cents in the canning of asparagus; women's earnings averaged from 24.2 cents an hour on green beans to 45.0 cents on large fruits.

Almost half of the workers on cold-pack or frosted fruits or vegetables in Washington earned 40 cents an hour in the busy part of the 1939 season, more than a fourth earned 50 cents, and an eighth earned more than 50 cents an hour. Thirty percent of Oregon's workers in this industry earned 35 cents an hour and another 30 percent earned 40 cents; 15 percent earned 45 or 50 cents. More than half of the workers in New York and in Michigan received 25 cents an hour. In plants in incorporated towns in Indiana, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, combined, all employees received 25 cents an hour or more. In Virginia 95 percent of the workers were paid 25 cents an hour. Workers in Tennessee for whom hours were reported earned 15 cents an hour or less.

About half of the workers in citrus-fruit canneries, in citrus-juice canneries, and in plants canning both products, earned in 1939 25 and under 30 cents an hour.

In 1939 almost all employees in the dried-fruit industry in California earned over 30 cents an hour, and approximately three-fifths received 50 cents and more. In Washington rural evaporated-apple plants paid a third of their workers less than 30 cents an hour. In towns of 2,500 and over no workers received less than 30 cents an hour and three-fifths of the employees earned 30 to 35 cents. In the New York evaporating plants, which with one exception were all in rural areas, one-eighth of the workers earned under 25 cents an hour and over seven-tenths earned exactly 25 cents.

The minimum hourly rate of wages in Honolulu pineapple canneries in 1939 was 30 cents for women and 37.5 cents for men; in the Maui canneries it was 26 cents for women and 32.5 cents for men. For all women the median in 1939 was 31.6 cents and for all men, 40.2 cents.

Average hourly earnings in these canning and preserving industries are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings in Canning and Preserving, by Product

Product and year	Average hourly earnings (cents)		Product and year	Average hourly earnings (cents)	
	Towns of under 2,500	Towns of 2,500 and over		Men	Women
Cold-preserving plants—all products (1939):					
Indiana, Minnesota, and Wisconsin.....	20.9	30.8	Hawaiian pineapple (1939).....	<sup>1</sup> 40.2	<sup>1</sup> 31.6
Michigan.....	26.2	28.2	Vegetables and deciduous fruits (1938):		
New York.....	28.5	29.0	Tomatoes and tomato products.....	36.6	30.8
Oregon.....	38.7	44.3	Corn.....	34.2	27.1
Tennessee.....		13.0	Peas.....	34.9	26.1
Virginia.....	25.2	25.4	Green beans.....	33.6	24.2
Washington.....	45.3	45.4	Spinach.....	50.9	43.7
Citrus-fruit products (1939):			Asparagus.....	52.5	43.4
Citrus fruits:			Pork and beans.....	39.7	32.8
Florida.....	31.7	30.2	Sauerkraut.....	38.1	30.7
Texas.....	25.4	25.2	Pickles.....	50.8	37.5
Citrus-fruit juices:			Fruits, large.....	52.3	45.0
California.....		45.7	Fruits, small.....	48.3	42.8
Florida.....	27.9	29.5	Jams, jellies, preserves, and fruit juices.....	52.0	37.9
Texas.....	23.2	25.9	Olives.....	51.4	39.5
Citrus fruits and juices: Florida.....		27.6			
Dried fruit (1939):					
California.....	44.1	48.6			
New York.....	26.2				
Washington.....	32.8	36.5			

<sup>1</sup> Median.

In the canning season of 1939 the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act had become effective, and the minimum rate of 25 cents an hour became applicable to canneries subject to the act. A percentage distribution of hourly earnings in identical plants in vegetable and deciduous-fruit canneries in both 1938 and 1939 shows, with some exceptions, higher hourly earnings in 1939. Canneries in Virginia were the only tomato canneries where the proportion of the employees receiving under 25 cents an hour was as high in 1939 as in 1938; these canneries were all in rural communities, and obtained their tomatoes within a 10-mile limit, which exempted them from the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Reductions in the proportion earning under 25 cents were shown on other products, and on green and wax beans, where earnings were the lowest in 1938, the percentage earning less than the minimum was reduced from 60 to 10 in Maryland, from 33 to 7 in New York, and from 55 to less than 1 in Wisconsin.

The average hourly earnings in identical plants in vegetable and deciduous-fruit canneries in the 1938 and 1939 seasons, by product and State, are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Average Hourly Earnings in Identical Plants in Vegetable and Deciduous-Fruit Canneries in 1938 and 1939, by Product and State

Product and State	Average hourly earnings		Product and State	Average hourly earnings	
	1938	1939		1938	1939
Tomatoes and tomato products:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	Peas—Continued	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Illinois.....	34.1	32.7	Indiana.....	32.5	37.9
Indiana.....	29.7	30.9	Iowa.....	33.8	34.9
Iowa.....	34.1	34.6	Maryland.....	25.5	26.8
Maryland.....	23.4	24.5	Minnesota.....	35.8	35.4
New York.....	32.0	32.1	New York.....	30.4	31.6
Virginia.....	16.1	17.1	Wisconsin.....	32.1	31.9
Wisconsin.....	26.2	28.4	Green beans:		
Corn:			Iowa.....	29.8	28.7
Illinois.....	33.4	33.4	Maryland.....	23.8	26.1
Indiana.....	28.7	30.4	New York.....	26.0	28.8
Iowa.....	30.1	30.2	Wisconsin.....	25.8	28.2
Maryland.....	24.7	25.9	Spinach: Maryland.....	25.1	26.0
Minnesota.....	33.6	32.6	Asparagus: Illinois.....	21.0	26.5
New York.....	29.7	30.5	Lima beans:		
Wisconsin.....	28.6	29.3	Maryland.....	23.2	26.7
Peas:			Virginia.....	17.7	21.5
Illinois.....	35.5	34.7			

### Weekly Earnings

Weekly earnings in the canning and preserving industries necessarily show only what the workers earn, on the average, in a week in the busy canning season. Average week's earnings of men and of women in vegetable and deciduous-fruit canneries in 1938, by product and State, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Average Week's Earnings of Men and Women in Vegetable and Deciduous-Fruit Canneries, 1938, by Product and State

Product and State	Men's earnings <sup>1</sup>		Women's earnings <sup>1</sup>	
	Arithmetic average	Median	Arithmetic average	Median
Tomatoes and tomato products.....	\$18.55		\$9.85	
California.....	23.00	\$21.95	12.55	\$12.60
Illinois.....	14.25	14.90	6.50	5.80
Indiana.....	16.00	15.30	8.25	7.85
Iowa.....	18.90	18.20	11.85	12.55
Maryland.....	9.90	9.15	7.20	6.65
New Jersey.....	10.55	8.80	7.25	6.40
New York.....	29.70	28.30	13.35	12.90
Ohio.....	25.95	25.25	16.30	17.05
Virginia.....	6.40	6.40	5.40	5.00
Corn.....	19.00		11.50	
Illinois.....	18.50	17.65	10.55	11.20
Indiana.....	16.95	15.00	9.50	10.15
Iowa.....	17.25	15.75	10.10	9.40
Maryland.....	16.75	16.60	11.05	11.45
Minnesota.....	20.60	20.15	13.45	13.65
New York.....	25.70	27.30	13.20	12.30
Washington.....	16.50	15.00	8.20	8.35
Wisconsin.....	15.90	13.80	5.25	4.50

<sup>1</sup> Medians not computed where base is less than 50.



TABLE 4.—Average Week's Earnings of Men and Women in Vegetable and Deciduous-Fruit Canneries, 1938, by Product and State—Continued

Product and State	Men's earnings		Women's earnings	
	Arithmetic average	Median	Arithmetic average	Median
Peas	\$20.75		\$9.00	
California	20.45	\$21.00	9.10	\$9.50
Illinois	18.80	18.90	7.85	7.70
Indiana	19.60	17.10	12.45	9.05
Iowa	19.95	20.50	10.40	7.90
Maryland	15.75	15.40	8.40	8.60
Minnesota	20.75	19.75	10.45	9.25
New York	21.95	22.00	10.10	9.65
Virginia	7.75	7.20	3.20	
Washington	29.30	30.15	10.60	10.25
Wisconsin	22.20	21.85	7.70	7.35
Green beans	17.75		9.15	
California	28.65	29.65	15.35	13.85
Indiana	12.50	13.20	4.35	2.45
Iowa	18.90	18.35	10.95	12.05
Maryland	12.65	12.80	8.30	8.70
New York	20.65	20.55	9.60	9.65
Washington	22.95	24.10	15.10	13.90
Wisconsin	19.75	19.90	8.65	9.50
Spinach	22.05		15.90	
California	23.65	22.80	16.65	16.40
Maryland	11.30	12.05	7.65	7.70
Asparagus	23.70		14.95	
California	24.50	24.40	16.30	16.50
Illinois	12.40	11.25	4.85	6.05
New Jersey and Pennsylvania	17.25		6.90	
Pork and beans	16.05		8.15	
Illinois	20.80	19.80	13.85	
Indiana	15.65	13.90	7.25	5.85
Sauerkraut	18.80		12.70	
New York	17.30	17.70	12.45	13.05
Wisconsin	20.85	22.20	13.00	13.80
Pickles	23.25		14.80	
California	27.20	28.35	19.45	18.80
Illinois	20.90	21.60	14.05	13.85
Ohio	21.65	23.25	12.85	11.25
Wisconsin	20.50	20.30	13.35	13.35
Large fruits	27.20		17.85	
California	27.30	27.85	17.85	17.95
Washington	25.80	26.10	18.20	18.80
Small fruits	22.15		15.25	
California	23.70	24.50	18.10	17.10
New York	15.20	14.25	8.20	8.35
Washington	23.30	24.40	14.35	15.15
Jams, jellies, and fruit juices	22.25		15.35	
California	22.50	23.95	16.95	17.45
Illinois	23.00	22.65	13.80	
New Jersey and Pennsylvania	22.10	22.55	15.10	14.65
New York	19.75	17.85	10.95	11.45
Ohio	24.65		15.15	
Washington	23.50	24.20	15.00	15.80
Olives	20.60		13.50	
California	20.75	21.20	13.35	13.55
New Jersey and Pennsylvania	17.40		15.45	14.40
Ohio	24.90		12.65	

Earnings in the dried-fruit industry in 1938 in the week recorded averaged for men, \$25 in California, \$18.95 in New York, and \$18.35 in Washington. The average for women in the same week was \$16.65 in California, \$10.65 in New York, and \$14 in Washington.

Week's earnings of women in a peak week in 1939 in the pineapple-canning industry tended to concentrate at \$13 and under \$14, about 43 percent of the women earning this much. About 70 percent received \$10 and under \$15. Men's week's earnings showed a concentration from \$15 to \$20. Two-thirds of the men earned less than \$20 in the week recorded.

### *Annual Earnings*

Only 2 percent of the 179,000 vegetable and deciduous-fruit canner workers on the 1937 pay rolls worked the entire 52 weeks. Their earnings averaged \$1,078 for the year. One percent worked 46 and under 52 weeks and averaged \$905 for the year. Average annual earnings for those who worked under 39 weeks were less than \$600. Only 5 percent of all the workers earned \$600 or more, though in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, where large establishments canned non-seasonal products, the percentage was almost 38 and in Ohio almost 14. In the States where the canning was mainly of fresh fruits and vegetables the percentage earning as much as \$600 ranged from less than 1 to 5.

Where workers obtained less than 4 weeks' work in these canneries, one-third of them averaged only \$20.10 each, and in 6 States the average was less. A test was made in one area to find out the amount of shifting of individuals from plant to plant. Six percent of the workers were found to have been employed in more than one cannery in the same locality in the 1937 season. But "even when allowance for such additional employment is made, it is clear that the amount of annual earnings possible in the canning industries is far too small to constitute more than a cash supplement to other income for the great majority of the workers employed there."

Data were also obtained as to the number of weeks' employment and earnings in 1937 for 10,293 workers in 32 dried-fruit plants. Although the dried-fruit industry operates for a longer period during the year than most of the other canning and preserving industries, only one-sixth of the workers in these plants had worked as many as 39 weeks in 1937.

Almost one-half of the employees covered in pineapple canneries had worked for the firm in less than 12 weeks in 1938. Only about one-sixth of the men and one-tenth of the women had earnings during the 52 weeks of the year.

Table 5 shows the annual employment and earnings in these canning and preserving industries.

TABLE 5.—*Annual Employment and Earnings in Canning and Preserving, by Product*

Weeks worked in year	Vegetables and deciduous fruits (1937)		Dried fruit (1937)		Hawaiian pineapple (1938)		
	Percent of employees working classified weeks	Average year's earnings	Percent of employees working classified weeks	Average year's earnings	Percent of employees working classified weeks	Average year's earnings	
						Men	Women
Total.....	100.0	\$140.90	100.0	\$272.45	100.0	\$169.00	\$115.00
Under 4 weeks.....	33.3	20.10	21.3	20.40	5.4	16.30	15.00
4 and under 8 weeks.....	31.5	74.90	21.6	81.60	13.5	67.40	50.70
8 and under 12 weeks.....	15.5	149.10	13.2	151.60	28.3	128.00	92.65
12 and under 16 weeks.....	6.7	223.35	9.3	210.05	12.8	177.00	115.00
16 and under 20 weeks.....	3.8	294.55	5.0	278.05	3.4	248.00	137.00
20 weeks.....	.7	298.25	1.0	310.50	.4	(1)	(1)
21 and under 26 weeks.....	2.3	374.95	4.4	350.85	2.5	280.00	174.00
26 weeks.....	.3	446.35	.8	375.20	.6	(1)	(1)
27 and under 33 weeks.....	1.3	492.20	3.7	424.85	6.3	354.00	209.00
33 and under 39 weeks.....	1.1	593.15	3.0	530.35	3.9	440.00	254.00
39 weeks.....	.1	602.10	.5	552.85	.6	486.00	(1)
40 and under 46 weeks.....	.8	708.40	3.6	612.35	1.9	562.00	294.00
46 and under 52 weeks.....	1.1	905.30	7.6	849.40	6.2	586.00	358.00
52 weeks.....	1.9	1,078.10	5.1	1,079.50	14.2	891.00	370.00

<sup>1</sup> Base too small to warrant computation of an average.

## WAGES IN MECHANICAL SERVICE OF NAVY DEPARTMENT, 1941

A REVISED schedule of wages for all civil employees (except those on piece rates) in the field service of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps, within continental limits of the United States and Hawaii, became effective on November 18, 1940, to remain in force until another schedule is adopted.<sup>1</sup> This was the first general adjustment of wages for these workers since 1929. Many increases were granted in the new schedule.

The rates fixed for the laborer, helper, and mechanical service are given in the following table. The figures listed are the intermediate rates; the maximum rates are 6 cents more, and the minimum 6 cents less, than the intermediate.

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Navy Department. Schedule of Wages for Civil Employees in the Field Service of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps, effective November 18, 1940. Washington, 1940.



## Rates of Wages per Hour in the Laborer, Helper, and Mechanical Service of Navy Department and Marine Corps, 1941

Trade or occupation	Boston	New- port	New York	Phila- delphia	Wash- ington	Nor- folk	South Charles- ton
<i>Group I</i>							
Attendants, building (Naval Academy)					\$0.42		
Laborers, common	\$0.66	\$0.62	\$0.66	\$0.64	1.58	\$0.50	\$0.57
<i>Group II</i>							
Apprentices: <sup>1</sup>							
First-class	.70	.70	.70	.70	.70	.70	
Second-class	.58	.58	.58	.58	.58	.58	
Third-class	.46	.46	.46	.46	.46	.46	
Fourth-class	.34	.34	.34	.34	.34	.34	
Attendants:							
Battery					.68		
Powder factory					<sup>2</sup> { .92 .86 .80 .74 }		
Hammer runners:							
Heavy	.74		.74	.74	.74	.69	
Others	.69		.71	.71	.70	.66	
Helpers:							
Aircraft mechanic's, general		.65		.68		.62	
Aviation instrument maker's		.65		.68		.62	
Blacksmith's:							
Heavy fires	.73		.76	.74	.73	.65	
Other fires	.72		.71	.69	.68	.59	
Boilermaker's	.70		.68	.70	.68	.64	
Coppersmith's	.73		.68	.68	.63	.59	
Electrician's	.70	.70	.70	.70	.70	.62	
Flange turner's	.73		.76	.74		.65	
Forger's, heavy	.73		.76	.74		.65	
General	.69	.65	.70	.68	.68	.59	.69
Machinist's	.71	.67	.70	.68	.68	.62	
Metalsmith's		.65				.62	
Molder's	.68		.70	.63	.63	.62	
Navigational instrument maker's					.68		
Pipefitter's	.74		.70	.70	.70	.60	
Rigger's	.70	.65	.70	.70	.68	.50	
Ropemaker's	.69						
Sheet-metal worker's	.71		.69	.66	.64	.60	
Shipfitter's	.73		.70	.68		.60	
Trainee	.69	.65	.70	.68	.68	.59	
Woodworker's	.70	.65	.70	.69	.65	.63	
Hod carriers			.71		.69	.62	
Holders-on	.75		.80	.72		.69	
Laborers, classified	.66	.62	.66	.64	1.58	.50	.57
Oilers	.83	.78	.84	.78	.79	.78	
Press feeders, folders, stitchers, etc. (P. S.)				.74			
Primer workers, female		.52					
Rivet beaters	.64		.66	.62		.53	
Sandblasters	.81	.78	.86	.81	.81	.78	
Stable keepers			.66	.62			
Stevedores	.88	.88	.88	.88		.80	
Teamsters	.66		.70		.62	.52	
<i>Group III</i>							
Aircraft-fabric workers		.68		.70		.62	
Aircraft-instrument mechanics		1.02		1.04	1.04	1.04	
Aircraft mechanics:							
General		.98		1.00	1.00	1.00	
Motor		.98		1.00	1.00	1.00	
Ordnance						1.00	
Angle smiths:							
Heavy fires	1.10		1.13	1.13		1.06	
Other fires	.98		1.01	.94		.94	
Automotive mechanics					.94		
Blacksmiths:							
Heavy fires	1.12		1.13	1.06	1.06	1.06	
Other fires	1.00	.96	1.03	1.03	.94	.94	
Boat builders	1.02		1.05	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Boilermakers	1.00	.98	1.05	1.04	.99	.99	
Box makers	.69	.66	.72	.72	.68	.66	

See footnotes at end of table.

## Rates of Wages per Hour in the Laborer, Helper, and Mechanical Service of Navy Department and Marine Corps, 1941—Continued

Trade or occupation	Boston	Newport	New York	Philadelphia	Washington	Norfolk	South Charleston
<i>Group III—Continued</i>							
Brakemen	\$0.92		\$0.92	\$0.92	\$0.92	\$0.92	\$0.92
Buffers and polishers	.94	\$0.94	.94	.94	.94	.94	
Calkers and chippers, iron	.98		1.01	.95		.95	
Calkers, wood	.95		1.02	.95	.95	.95	
Cement finishers	1.05		1.06	1.02	1.02	1.00	1.00
Cement workers	.72	.68		.70	.68	.56	.63
Chain makers	1.04						
Chauffeurs	.86	.78	.84	.84	.79	.70	.79
Coffee roasters			1.05				
Conductors, railroad			.97	.97	.97	.97	
Coopers	.84		.86				.76
Coppersmiths	1.06	1.06	1.13	1.13	1.13	1.05	
Cranemen, electric (under 20 tons)	.86	.79	.85	.87	.84	.84	
Crystal-oscillator makers					.93		
Cupola tenders	.88		.92	.84	.84	.84	
Die sinkers	1.14		1.17	1.12	1.12	1.12	
Divers	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22		2.22	
Dredge operators							
Drillers	.92		.90	.90		.78	
Electricians	1.10	1.06	1.12	1.06	1.10	1.06	1.04
Electroplaters	1.00	.98	1.06	.99	.99	.99	
Elevator mechanics			1.26	1.12		1.12	
Enginemen	1.04	1.04	1.04	1.04	1.00	.99	1.03
Enginemen, hoisting and portable	1.05		1.05	1.05	1.01	1.00	
Enginemen, locomotive	1.05		1.05	1.05	1.01	1.00	.92
Enginemen, locomotive, electric					1.02	1.00	
Firemen	.82	.82	.84	.84	.80	.78	.84
Flange turners	1.01		1.07	.99	.99	.99	
Forgers:							
Drop	1.01		1.04	.93	.93	.93	
Heavy	1.54		1.58	1.52	1.52	1.52	
Light	1.24		1.25	1.18	1.18	1.18	
Foundry chippers	.77	.77	.84	.71	.71	.71	
Frame benders	1.01		1.07	1.06		1.06	
Furnace men:							
Foundry	.78	.78	.81	.76	.80	.72	
Heater			.78	.78	.78	.78	
Heavy forge, heater	.84		.90	.88	.88	.88	
Other forge	.72		.81	.72	.71	.71	
Galvanizers	.84	.80	.81	.83		.75	
Gardeners	.73	.70	.75	.75	.70	.70	.70
Gas cutters or burners	.87	.86	.94	.92	.91	.83	
Glass-apparatus makers					1.38		
Heat treaters (aviation)		1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	
Instrument makers	1.05	1.02	1.08	1.04	1.04	1.04	
Joiners	1.06	1.00	1.06	1.00	1.00	1.00	.94
Ladle men, foundry	.71		.78	.72	.75	.64	
Lead burners				1.23	1.23		
Leather workers	.81		.87	.78	.78	.76	
Letterers and grainers	1.07	1.05	1.11	1.05	1.05	1.05	
Linoleum layers			1.02	1.00			
Linotype or monotype operators, or compositors				1.06		1.06	
Loftsmen	1.10		1.10	1.12		1.08	
Machine operators	.83	.83	.83	.80	.80	.80	
Machinists	1.00	.98	1.05	1.00	1.00	1.00	.95
Masons, brick or stone	1.31	1.31	1.31	1.31	1.31	1.31	1.31
Mechanics, bombsight					1.26	1.14	
Mechanics, salvage							
Melters	.89		.93	.87	.87	.87	
Electric	1.20		1.20	1.26	1.20	1.32	
Open hearth					1.32		
Metallic cartridge-case makers					.80		
Metalsmiths (aviation)		1.06		1.06	1.06	1.06	
Millmen	1.02		1.06	1.00	1.05	1.00	
Model makers, wood			1.18		1.21		
Molders	1.10	1.08	1.18	1.12	1.12	1.12	
Operators, gas plant	.93	.93	.95	.90	.90	1.06	

See footnotes at end of table.

**Rates of Wages per Hour in the Laborer, Helper, and Mechanical Service of Navy Department and Marine Corps, 1941—Continued**

Trade or occupation	Boston	Newport	New York	Philadelphia	Washington	Norfolk	South Charleston
<i>Group III—Continued</i>							
Operators, sewage-disposal plant							
Operator, submarine training device			\$ .94				
Optical-instrument finishers					\$ .95		
Optical-instrument makers				\$1.05	1.05		
Optical-glass grinders and polishers					.93		
Optical-parts inspectors					.93		
Optical-instrument assemblers					.87		
Optical polish and wax mixers					.93		
Ordnancemen	\$ .84	\$ .84	.84	.84	.84	\$ .84	
Packers	.78	.76	.78	.78	.78	.72	
Painters	1.01	1.00	1.05	1.00	1.00	1.00	\$ .94
Painters, coach					1.02		
Painters, finish and insignia (aircraft)		1.05		1.05	1.05		
Parachute repairmen		.94					
Pattern makers	1.17	1.14	1.22	1.19	1.19	1.19	
Pavers			1.19				
Pipe coverers and insulators	1.04		1.04	1.04	1.00	1.00	
Pipe fitters	1.08	1.06	1.12	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.09
Plasterers	1.31		1.31	1.31	1.31	1.31	
Plumbers	1.08	1.06	1.12	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.02
Precision lens, prism and test platemakers					1.05		
Printers, job	1.04			1.04	1.04	1.04	
Punchers and shearers	.76		.86	.86		.76	
Radio mechanics						1.04	
Repairman, athletic equipment (Naval Academy)					(10)		
Rib stitchers (aviation)							
Riggers	1.05	.95	1.05	.98	.95	.95	
Riggers, antenna					1.07		
Riveters	1.01		1.04	.98		.95	
Rollers, brass and copper					.86		
Roofers	1.10	1.06	1.12				
Ropemakers	.87						
Sailmakers	1.00		1.02	.95	.95	.95	
Saw filers	1.11	1.08	1.19	1.08	1.08	1.14	
Setters, automatic machine tool		.89					
Sewers	.63	.60	.64	.60	.60	.60	
Sheet-metal workers	1.08	1.06	1.12	1.06	1.06	1.06	
Ship fitters	1.02		1.04	1.02	.99	1.00	
Shipwrights	1.02		1.06	1.00	1.00	1.00	
Temperers	1.02	1.02		1.02	1.02		
Tile and plate setters	1.09		1.09	1.09	1.09		
Toolmakers	1.08	1.04	1.11	1.06	1.06	1.06	.99
Trackmen	.80		.80	.80	.80	.76	.80
Tree surgeons	.96				.96		
Typewriter repairmen						.97	
Upholsterers	1.01	.99	1.14	1.09	.99	.99	
Watch and chronometer repairers					1.20		
Water tenders	.88	.88	.96	.88	.88	.86	
Welders:							
Electric	1.00	1.00	1.04	1.00	.99	.98	
Gas	1.00		1.04	1.00	.99	.98	
Wharf builders	1.06	.99	1.05	1.04	1.00	1.00	
Wireworkers (aviation)		.90		.95			

See footnotes at end of table.



## Rates of Wages per Hour in the Laborer, Helper, and Mechanical Service of Navy Department and Marine Corps, 1941—Continued

Trade or occupation	Charles- ton	Pensa- cola	San Diego	Mare Island	Puget Sound	Great Lakes	Pearl Harbor
<i>Group I</i>							
Attendants, building (Naval Academy)							
Laborers, common	\$0.41	\$0.43	\$0.66	\$0.66	\$0.66	\$0.63	\$0.56
<i>Group II</i>							
Apprentices: 1							
First-class	.70	.70	.70	.70	.70		.70
Second-class	.58	.58	.58	.58	.58		.58
Third-class	.46	.46	.46	.46	.46		.46
Fourth-class	.34	.34	.34	.34	.34		.34
Attendants:							
Battery							
Powder factory							
Hammer runners:							
Heavy	.69						.74
Others	.66						.68
Helpers:							
Aircraft mechanic's, general		.60	.70	.70	.70		.68
Aviation-instrument maker's		.60	.70	.70			.68
Blacksmith's:							
Heavy fires	.64			.78	.78		.72
Other fires	.59	.60	.73	.73	.73		.68
Boilermaker's	.63	.59		.75	.75		.68
Coppersmith's	.56	.56		.70	.75		.68
Electrician's	.62	.62	.74	.74	.74	.69	.70
Flange turner's	.64			.78	.78		.72
Forger's, heavy	.64			.78	.78		.72
General	.56	.57	.68	.74	.74	.66	.68
Machinist's	.59	.60	.74	.74	.74	.69	.68
Metalsmith's		.60	.70	.74	.74		.68
Molder's	.56	.56		.69	.69		.68
Navigational instrument maker's							
Pipefitter's	.59	.60	.74	.74	.74	.69	.70
Rigger's	.56	.59	.74	.74	.74	.69	.68
Ropemaker's							
Sheet-metal worker's	.56	.60	.70	.74	.74		.68
Shipfitter's	.59	.59		.74	.74		.68
Trainee	.56	.57		.74	.74		.68
Woodworker's	.56	.57	.72	.74	.74		.70
Hod carriers	.62				.72		.71
Holders-on	.65			.90	.90		.84
Laborers, classified	.41	.43	.66	.66	.66	.63	.56
Oilers		.72			.84		.87
Press feeders, folders, stitchers, etc. (P. S.)	.44	.49					
Primer workers, female							
Rivet heaters	.52			.71	.71		.69
Sandblasters	.78	.75	.84	.81	.81		.81
Stable keepers		.62					
Stevedores	.68	.68	.86	.86	.86		.86
Teamsters		.48	.69			.69	
<i>Group III</i>							
Aircraft-fabric workers		.61	.72	.72			.87
Aircraft-instrument mechanics		1.01	1.05	1.05	1.11		1.18
Aircraft mechanics:							
General		.95	1.05	1.06	1.06		1.13
Motor		.95	1.05	1.06	1.06	1.02	1.13
Ordnance		.95	1.05	1.06			
Angle smiths:							
Heavy fires	1.04				1.15		1.24
Other fires	.89				1.04		1.12
Automotive mechanics	.89	.89	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.02	
Blacksmiths:							
Heavy fires	1.01			1.25	1.20		1.25
Other fires	.89	.94	1.04	1.05	1.04		1.12
Boat builders		.96	1.11	1.13	1.13		1.19
Boilermakers	.96	.93	1.06	1.06	1.09	.99	1.12
Box makers	.64		.77	.72	.72	.72	.81
Brakemen	.92	.92		.94	.94		1.00
Buffers and polishers		.93	1.01	1.01	1.01		1.10
Calkers and chippers, iron	.93	.90		1.04	1.09		1.12
Calkers, wood	.93	.90		1.05	1.14		1.14

See footnotes at end of table.

*Rates of Wages per Hour in the Laborer, Helper, and Mechanical Service of Navy Department and Marine Corps, 1941—Continued*

Trade or occupation	Charleston	Pensacola	San Diego	Mare Island	Puget Sound	Great Lakes	Pearl Harbor
<i>Group III—Continued</i>							
Cement finishers	\$1.00	\$1.00	\$1.12	\$1.12	\$1.12	\$1.06	\$1.20
Cement workers	.47	.49	.72	.72	.72		.76
Chain makers							
Chauffeurs	.62	.64	.92	.94	.94	.80	.75
Coffee roasters				1.05			
Conductors, railroad	.97			.99	.99		
Coopers				.88	.94		
Coppersmiths	.96	.95	1.06	1.12	1.15		1.17
Cranemen, electric (under 20 tons)	.76	.79	.88	.88	.88		.96
Cupola tenders	.75			.94	.94		1.02
Die sinkers			1.20	1.23	1.18		1.24
Divers <sup>1</sup>	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22		2.26
Dredge operators	1.14						
Drillers	.78	.78		.94	.96		.96
Electricians	1.06	1.06	1.13	1.13	1.13	1.08	1.22
Electroplaters	.92	.98	1.02	1.13	1.13		1.18
Elevator mechanics			1.05	1.05			
Enginemen	.92	.93	1.04	1.06	1.06	1.00	1.14
Enginemen, hoisting and portable	.96	.94	1.10	1.10	1.10		1.14
Enginemen, locomotive	.96	.94	1.10	1.10	1.10		1.14
Enginemen, locomotive, electric				1.06			
Firemen	.74	.74	.93	.94	.92	.83	.95
Flange turners	.98			1.07	1.07		1.14
Forgers:							
Drop				1.02	1.00		1.08
Heavy	1.50			1.60	1.60		1.68
Light	1.13			1.29	1.32		1.36
Foundry chippers	.65			.72	.72		.81
Frame benders	1.06			1.07	1.10		1.14
Furnace men:							
Foundry	.66	.66		.84	.84		.92
Heater	.72			.78	.78		.84
Heavy forge, heater	.86			.85	.88		.93
Other forge	.66			.78	.78		.84
Galvanizers	.71	.66		.94	.90		.98
Gardeners	.70	.70	.70	.82	.87	.70	.90
Gas cutters or burners	.82	.85		.94	.98		.98
Heat treaters (aviation)		.93	1.08	1.08			1.13
Instrument makers	1.01	1.01	1.05	1.11	1.11		1.18
Joiners	.96	.96	1.11	1.13	1.13	1.05	1.19
Ladle men, foundry					.81		.88
Leatherworkers				.88			.96
Letterers and grainers		.97		1.16	1.14		1.23
Linotype or monotype operators, or compositors		1.01		1.19	1.19		
Loftsmen	1.05			1.14	1.14		1.18
Machine operators	.69	.69		.86	.89		.94
Machinists	.96	.96	1.05	1.06	1.06	1.02	1.13
Masons, brick or stone	1.31	1.31	1.35	1.35	1.35	1.31	1.43
Mechanics, bombsight		1.14	* 1.14	1.14	* 1.14		* 1.14
Mechanics, salvage			1.13				
Melters					.94		1.02
Electric					1.20		1.29
Metalsmiths (aviation)		1.02	1.13	1.14	1.14		1.22
Millmen	.99		1.11	1.13	1.13	1.05	1.19
Molders	1.07	1.01		1.17	1.16		1.24
Operators, gas plant	.88	.88		.95	1.02		
Operators, sewage-disposal plant				1.00			
Optical polish and wax mixers							
Ordnancemen	.84	.84	.90	.90	.90		.99
Packers	.72	.69	.81	.94	.94	.83	.93
Painters	.92	.92	1.08	1.10	1.10	1.02	1.17
Painters, coach							
Painters, finish and insignia (aircraft)		1.03	1.08	1.14	1.12		1.17
Parachute repairmen		.91	1.02	1.02			
Pattern makers	1.14	1.07	1.23	1.34	1.26		1.35
Pavers							
Pipe coverers and insulators	1.00			1.11	1.11		1.12
Pipe fitters	1.04	1.04	1.13	1.13	1.13	1.07	1.22
Plasterers	1.31	1.31	1.31	1.35	1.35	1.29	1.43

See footnotes at end of table.

## Rates of Wages per Hour in the Laborer, Helper, and Mechanical Service of Navy Department and Marine Corps, 1941—Continued

Trade or occupation	Charles-ton	Pensa-cola	San Diego	Mare Island	Puget Sound	Great Lakes	Pearl Harbor
<i>Group III—Continued</i>							
Plumbers.....	\$1.04	\$1.04	\$1.13	\$1.13	\$1.13	\$1.07	\$1.22
Precision lens, prism and test platemakers.....							
Printers, job.....	.99	.99		1.19	1.19		1.19
Punchers and shearers.....	.78			.85	.88		.88
Radio mechanics.....		1.01	1.08	1.08			1.18
Repairman, athletic equipment (Naval Academy).....							
Rib stitchers (aviation).....			.60	.60			.60
Riggers.....	.93	.90	1.06	1.07	1.07	.96	1.14
Riggers, antenna.....							
Riveters.....	.93			1.02	1.09		1.11
Rollers, brass and-copper.....							
Roofers.....		1.00	1.13				1.22
Ropemakers.....							
Sailmakers.....	.95	.93		1.07	1.05		1.13
Saw filers.....	1.08	1.07		1.20	1.16		1.23
Setters, automatic-machine-tool.....							
Sewers.....	.50	.50	.65	.64	.65	.54	.69
Sheet-metal workers.....	1.01	1.02	1.13	1.14	1.14	1.07	1.22
Ship fitters.....	.96	.96	1.06	1.07	1.09		1.12
Shipwrights.....	.96	.96	1.11	1.13	1.13		1.19
Structural-iron workers.....			1.13				
Temperers.....							
Tile and plate setters.....	1.04	1.04	1.14	1.14	1.14		1.14
Toolmakers.....	1.01	1.01	1.14	1.14	1.14		1.19
Trackmen.....	.76	.76	.80	.80	.80	.80	.80
Tree surgeons.....	.96						
Typewriter repairmen.....							1.11
Upholsterers.....		.95	1.02	1.14	1.08		
Watch and chronometer repairers.....			1.05	1.05			1.18
Water tenders.....	.84	.84	.91				.99
Welder:							
Electric.....	.95	.94	1.06	1.06	1.06		1.13
Gas.....	.95	.94	1.06	1.06	1.06		1.10
Wharf builders.....	.96	.99	1.11	1.13	1.13		1.19
Wire workers (aviation).....		.80	.90	.90			1.13

<sup>1</sup> The intermediate rate for laborer, common, at the Naval Powder Factory, Indianhead, Md., and Naval Proving Ground, Dahlgren, Va., is \$0.54 per hour.

<sup>2</sup> Maximum rate only applies to each apprentice class.

<sup>3</sup> The maximum rate is \$0.98 per hour and the minimum rate is \$0.68 per hour.

<sup>4</sup> The intermediate rate for laborer, classified, at the Naval Powder Factory, Indianhead, Md., and at the Naval Proving Ground, Dahlgren, Va., is \$0.54 per hour.

<sup>5</sup> Only one rate of pay—maximum—for divers.

<sup>6</sup> The intermediate rate for gardener at the Naval Ammunition Depot, Hawthorne, Nev., is \$1.13 per hour.

<sup>7</sup> For use at Naval Powder Factory, Indianhead, Md., only.

<sup>8</sup> \$1.32 maximum during tenure of present incumbent.

<sup>9</sup> \$1.26 maximum during tenure of present incumbent.

<sup>10</sup> \$1,500, maximum rate per annum. Other rates are \$1,440, \$1,380, \$1,320, \$1,260, and \$1,200.

<sup>11</sup> For use at High Power Radio Station, Annapolis, Md., only.

<sup>12</sup> For use at Naval Observatory, Washington, D. C., only.

## WAGES IN COTTON PICKING, 1940

WAGE RATES for the picking of seed cotton averaged 62 cents per 100 pounds in 1940, for the country as a whole. This was an increase of 4 cents over the 1939 figure but a decrease of 7 cents from that for 1936 and 1937. The 1940 rates ranged from 51 cents in Alabama to 95 cents in California. Average rates for each of the cotton-growing States, and for the United States as a whole, in 1929 and in each year from 1936 to 1940, are shown in the following table taken from Crops and Markets for November 1940, issued by the United States Department of Agriculture.



## Average Wage Rates for Picking 100 Pounds of Seed Cotton, 1929 and 1936-40

State	1929	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
United States.....	\$1. 06	\$0. 69	\$0. 69	\$0. 57	\$0. 58	\$0. 62
Virginia.....	1. 15	.70	.75	.65	.60	.70
North Carolina.....	1. 01	.65	.70	.60	.60	.67
South Carolina.....	.81	.55	.60	.50	.50	.54
Georgia.....	.90	.55	.60	.60	.50	.53
Florida.....	1. 07	.60	.65	.60	.60	.67
Illinois.....	1. 15	.90	.70	.70	.70	.70
Missouri.....	1. 12	.95	.80	.75	.75	.77
Kansas.....	1. 30	.75	.65	.65	.65	.65
Kentucky.....	1. 18	.95	.80	.80	.80	.80
Tennessee.....	1. 34	.80	.70	.60	.60	.65
Alabama.....	.92	.60	.60	.50	.50	.51
Mississippi.....	1. 08	.75	.80	.55	.60	.57
Louisiana.....	1. 01	.65	.70	.55	.55	.55
Texas.....	1. 11	.65	.65	.55	.55	.58
Oklahoma.....	1. 22	.75	.75	.70	.65	.72
Arkansas.....	1. 06	.75	.70	.60	.60	.65
New Mexico.....	1. 25	.70	.70	.60	.65	.68
Arizona.....	1. 50	1. 10	.85	.80	.90	.93
California.....	1. 45	1. 00	.95	.75	.85	.95



## EARNINGS OF OFFICE WORKERS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES, OCTOBER 1940

WEEKLY earnings of office workers in factories of New York State averaged \$35.04 in October 1940. The average for male workers was \$45.25, practically double the \$22.88 received by women. Office workers received higher pay than shop workers in all industry groups except water, light, and power. The difference between office and shop earnings was much greater for men than for women, men averaging \$32.62 in the shops as compared with \$45.25 in offices, while women averaged only \$4.71 more in offices than in shops.

The number of employees, total pay rolls, and average weekly earnings of office employees in representative factories in New York State in October 1940 are shown in table 1, by industry groups. The figures are from the New York Department of Labor's annual report on office workers' earnings, published in its Industrial Bulletin for November 1940. The data were based on reports from the same fixed list of firms that furnish information for the factory employment record carried each month in the Industrial Bulletin. The employees covered in the survey included clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, stock clerks, office managers, and superintendents, and also such technical employees as draftsmen, chemists, and other laboratory assistants doing routine work. Salesmen and

executives were omitted. The differences in earnings between industries are attributed by the New York Department of Labor to variations in the make-up of factory office staffs and to uneven distribution of highly paid technical and supervisory personnel.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Average Weekly Earnings in Representative New York State Factories, October 1940*

Industry	Number of employees	Amount of pay roll	Average weekly earnings
All industry groups.....	49,780	\$1,744,310	\$35.04
Stone, clay, and glass.....	996	31,160	31.29
Metals and machinery.....	20,372	778,789	38.23
Wood manufactures.....	1,378	44,022	31.95
Furs, leather, and rubber goods.....	3,145	84,471	26.86
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	4,448	170,157	38.25
Pulp and paper.....	540	18,715	34.66
Printing and paper goods.....	7,596	272,737	35.91
Textiles.....	2,288	62,059	27.12
Clothing and millinery.....	3,841	102,601	26.71
Food and tobacco.....	3,708	124,650	33.62
Water, light, and power.....	1,468	54,949	37.43

Table 2 gives average weekly earnings of men and of women in factory offices of New York State in October 1940. The figures in this table are based on fewer reports than those in table 1, and not on reports from the same fixed list of firms, owing to the fact that some firms are unable to furnish statistics by sex.

TABLE 2.—*Average Weekly Earnings of Men and Women in Factory Offices, October 1940*

Industry group	Men			Women		
	Total State	New York City	Upstate	Total State	New York City	Upstate
All industry groups.....	\$45.25	\$43.56	\$46.05	\$22.88	\$24.08	\$22.03
Stone, clay, and glass.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Metals and machinery.....	46.30	42.63	47.04	22.28	24.05	21.83
Wood manufactures.....	42.95	38.28	44.78	20.63	21.00	20.51
Furs, leather, and rubber goods.....	38.76	38.19	39.22	20.75	21.91	19.27
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	53.85	36.58	59.74	24.35	23.87	24.61
Pulp and paper.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Printing and paper goods.....	45.02	48.60	38.53	24.57	25.58	22.56
Textiles.....	38.06	40.99	37.07	20.60	21.19	20.40
Clothing and millinery.....	37.24	37.23	37.34	22.65	23.30	20.56
Food and tobacco.....	42.27	45.58	35.75	23.84	25.38	22.17
Water, light, and power.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

<sup>1</sup> Separate earnings not computed because of small number of employees.

Employment in factory offices, the New York department states, was about 10 percent greater in October 1940 than in October 1939, and pay rolls were approximately 13 percent higher.

## WAGES IN THE PHILIPPINE EMBROIDERY INDUSTRY, 1939

EMBROIDERY in the Philippines is essentially a household industry. A number of embroidery establishments, mostly in Manila, serve as distributing centers, the imported raw materials being cut and stamped and then distributed to embroidery workers in nearby Provinces, through contractors and subcontractors. A recent report<sup>1</sup> gives the wage rates in embroidery establishments in Manila in 1939.

The raw materials in the industry are classified according to the various types of needlework to be done and are distributed to the contractors on the basis of their respective specialties. The contractors in turn distribute the garments to the subcontractors or directly to the embroiderers. As practically all the work is home work and the workers are paid by the piece, these workers do not come under the 8-hour law although the factory workers do.

About 30 firms were operating in the embroidery business in 1937, most of which were engaged in both production and export. At that time the industry as a whole was reported to represent an investment of about \$4,000,000, a substantial part of which consisted of goods in process and in transit. The investment in plant and equipment was relatively small.

Between 30,000 and 50,000 home workers are employed on a part-time basis, the number of workers varying with the number of orders on hand. Wages are very low in spite of the high grade of workmanship required.

A study, by the Division of Labor Statistics of the Philippine Department of Labor, of wages of workers regularly employed in the factories indicated that the average daily wage in 1939 was 1.07 pesos.<sup>2</sup> The study covered 2,810 wage earners employed in the 15 establishments which practically control the Philippine embroidery business.

Of the total number of workers employed, 1,142 or 40.64 percent earned less than 1 peso a day and only 55, or 1.96 percent, received as much as 2.40 pesos per day. Nearly one-third of the workers were in the wage group earning from 1 peso to 1.20 pesos per day. Less than 18 percent earned from 1.20 pesos to 1.40 pesos per day, while only about 11 percent were paid 1.40 pesos or over. Supervisors,

<sup>1</sup> Philippine Department of Labor, Labor Bulletin (Manila), September-October 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Value of peso = 50 cents.



foremen, mechanics, and designers received the highest rates of pay among the male workers, while among female workers the highest rates were paid to overseers, designers, supervisors, and forewomen.

Ten of the establishments paid their workers on a piece-rate basis and five paid on a daily or monthly basis. The regular working hours were 8 per day, and the workweek varied from 5½ to 6 days in the different establishments.

Free medical treatment was furnished by 13 of the reporting establishments, and in 11 establishments gifts or other forms of material aid were given to workers rendering satisfactory service.



### WEEKLY EARNINGS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND, 1938 AND 1940 <sup>1</sup>

INCREASES in average weekly earnings of workers in the principal industries of Great Britain and Northern Ireland from October 1938 to July 1940 were not entirely associated with conditions arising from the war. According to the results of an official survey published by the Ministry of Labor,<sup>2</sup> average earnings must have been appreciably higher at the outbreak of war than in late 1938, owing to a substantial improvement in employment accompanied by a slight rise in the average level of wage rates.

The average rise in rates of wages is estimated to have been not less than 1 percent from October 1938 to the outbreak of war at the beginning of September 1939. The available information indicates an additional 10-percent increase between that month and July 20, 1940. Changes varied in different industries. For example, employees in the printing and bookbinding industry had lower average earnings in July 1940 than in October 1938 (although a general increase was granted later). Other industries showed increases considerably in excess of 10 percent.

In this particular survey it was impracticable to obtain information on the number of working hours to which the earnings relate. It is stated, however, that July 1940 was a period when output was being speeded up in munitions production. Weekly hours were very long, and employees often worked on a 7-day basis. Consequently earnings increased relatively more than did the number of hours

<sup>1</sup> Additional data on this subject will appear in the March Monthly Labor Review.

<sup>2</sup> Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), November 1940.

worked, as payment for overtime is at higher than normal rates and various forms of bonus are also provided. Therefore, in comparing earnings in October 1938, a period of normal employment, with war-time earnings in July 1940, these facts should be taken into consideration.

### *Methods*

When the July 1940 survey of earnings was made, information was assembled in the same way as in earlier studies. In the last preceding investigation, covering October 1938, forms were sent to all employers with more than 10 workers in manufacturing industries generally and in some nonmanufacturing industries. They were requested to report on the earnings of their wage earners in the last pay week of the month. Similarly the 1940 data covered the week ending July 20.

Forms were sent to about 64,500 establishments in July 1940. Of this total about 60,500 supplied returns that were suitable for use. As in the earlier period, employers were asked to include returns for wage earners who were at work in the specified week. Office workers, shop assistants, and home workers were excluded. Foremen, carters, warehousemen, etc. were included, but managers, commercial travelers, clerks and typists, and salaried workers were generally omitted. If for special reasons, such as the occurrence of a holiday or other stoppage, the workweek chosen would not yield the required information on earnings, employers were asked to substitute data for the nearest suitable period.

### *Earnings*

Average weekly earnings are shown in the following table, by industries, for all workers and for adult males and females separately, as of October 1938 and July 1940. The statistics for all workers include returns from all reporting firms in July 1940, while those for men and women separately are for a smaller sample. All classes of workers, regardless of skill, are included.

## Average Weekly Earnings in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, October 1938 and July 1940

Industry	Average weekly earnings of all workers covered				Average weekly earnings of workers specially classified <sup>1</sup>						
	October 1938		July 1940	Percent of increase, 1938 to 1940	July 1940		Percent of increase, 1938 to 1940				
	s.	d.	Men		Women	Men	Women				
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	59	5	85	1	43.2	100	3	43	11	36.3	34.4
Pig iron (blast furnaces).....	79	11	93	10	17.4	98	1	-----	-----	18.9	-----
Iron puddling, steel smelting, rolling, etc.....	73	2	96	10	32.3	106	2	-----	-----	32.8	-----
Nonferrous metal manufacture.....	63	0	86	6	37.3	97	6	43	0	36.4	35.8
Tin plate.....	71	5	75	6	5.7	92	3	35	1	9.9	.5
Iron and steel tubes.....	63	4	87	0	37.4	97	3	36	1	36.8	22.7
Wire, wire netting, wire ropes, etc.....	55	3	76	0	37.6	94	11	39	7	38.7	35.3
Engineering, etc.: <sup>2</sup>											
General engineering, and engineers' iron and steel founding.....	60	5	85	4	45.3	97	11	47	7	33.1	48.3
Electrical engineering.....	50	10	72	5	42.5	106	6	47	6	43.1	46.5
Marine engineering.....	61	9	84	0	36.0	101	4	-----	-----	35.0	-----
Constructional engineering.....	62	5	82	8	32.4	95	8	-----	-----	32.9	-----
Motor vehicles, cycles, and aircraft manufacture and repair.....	70	8	106	5	50.6 <sup>3</sup>	114	11	50	2	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Shipbuilding and repair.....	59	11	90	8	51.3	103	3	-----	-----	47.3	-----
Railway carriage and wagon and tram building.....	62	0	80	10	30.4	92	2	-----	-----	28.3	-----
Electric cables, apparatus, lamps, etc.....	50	1	68	4	36.4	101	7	45	6	39.3	25.8
Hand tools, cutlery, saws, files, etc.....	45	1	64	2	42.3	97	5	34	6	42.6	23.6
Bolts, nuts, screws, rivets, nails, etc.....	42	4	58	3	37.6	89	7	44	3	38.9	48.3
Brass and yellow metal goods.....	49	2	62	4	26.8	91	1	38	3	32.3	25.4
Heating and ventilating engineering.....	67	10	80	10	19.2	100	11	-----	-----	32.2	-----
Watches, clocks, plate, jewelry, etc.....	48	1	55	10	16.1	84	10	36	2	19.3	17.9
Other metal industries.....	49	4	67	1	36.0	96	6	39	5	38.0	23.2
Textiles.....	38	3	48	10	29.2	75	10	39	9	32.6	25.5
Cotton.....	35	7	51	6	44.7	74	6	44	1	46.6	40.3
Woolen and worsted.....	39	0	50	5	29.3	75	6	40	2	31.3	28.5
Silk throwing, spinning, and weaving (including artificial silk weaving).....	38	11	52	1	33.8	82	4	37	11	32.6	22.3
Artificial silk spinning.....	52	3	67	2	28.4	89	10	37	0	21.4	31.0
Flax spinning and weaving.....	29	5	31	1	7.1	56	2	27	3	15.6	7.3
Jute spinning and weaving.....	36	5	42	9	17.4	69	4	36	9	35.9	8.1
Hemp, rope, cord, twine, etc.....	31	2	38	7	23.8	74	6	36	0	32.5	29.7
Hosiery.....	40	4	44	2	9.5	90	11	40	7	15.2	10.2
Lace.....	39	11	50	2	25.7	81	8	35	6	35.4	18.3
Carpets and rugs.....	38	11	42	7	9.4	69	0	37	7	13.3	3.2
Other textiles.....	34	7	45	6	31.6	79	6	39	8	33.4	29.3
Textile bleaching, printing, dyeing, etc.....	45	5	56	9	25.0	73	2	35	8	27.8	24.4
Clothing.....	35	7	40	2	12.9	72	10	36	5	11.9	10.4
Tailoring (ready-made and wholesale custom).....	34	5	39	9	15.5	74	5	38	7	9.6	17.8
Tailoring (retail custom):											
Firms employing 10 or more.....	44	9	45	2	.9	76	4	38	0	4.0	1.5
Firms employing less than 10.....	43	3	44	7	2.9	62	7	35	9	2.2	5.1
Dressmaking and millinery:											
Firms employing 10 or more.....	32	6	33	8	3.6	73	9	36	8	7.9	2.8
Firms employing less than 10.....	29	0	35	5	22.1	-----	-----	38	1	-----	7.0
Hats and caps (including straw plait).....	39	9	42	2	6.1	67	11	33	10	3.7	5.2
Shirts, collars, underclothing, etc.....	30	1	33	5	11.1	74	10	35	11	13.4	11.9
Other dress industries.....	32	4	37	7	16.2	73	0	36	10	16.2	10.8
Boots, shoes, and slippers:											
Firms employing 10 or more.....	45	9	51	8	12.9	74	4	40	4	15.1	5.7
Firms employing less than 10.....	51	11	61	0	17.5	71	5	-----	-----	19.7	-----
Laundries:											
Firms employing 10 or more.....	29	4	34	5	17.3	68	11	32	4	13.6	15.1
Firms employing less than 10.....	24	9	27	2	9.8	53	7	24	10	12.4	6.4
Dyeing, dry cleaning, etc.....	35	4	38	7	9.5	66	0	32	0	7.6	3.7

See footnotes at end of table.



## Average Weekly Earnings in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, October 1938 and July 1940—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings of all workers covered			Average weekly earnings of workers specially classified			
	October 1938	July 1940	Percent of increase, 1938 to 1940	July 1940		Percent of increase, 1938 to 1940	
				Men	Women	Men	Women
	s. d.	s. d.		s. d.	s. d.		
Food, drink, and tobacco.....	46 10	53 8	14.6	76 8	35 10	16.3	7.5
Bread, biscuits, cakes, etc.:							
Firms employing 10 or more.....	45 5	52 11	16.5	76 4	35 5	17.6	7.6
Firms employing less than 10.....	47 4	55 6	17.3	72 3	32 6	22.1	14.7
Grain milling.....	57 5	69 0	20.2	77 6	33 3	21.9	12.1
Cocoa, chocolate, and sugar confectionery.....	39 7	44 11	13.5	79 3	33 6	9.2	1.3
Other food industries.....	46 5	52 8	13.5	76 1	33 11	17.6	9.7
Drink industries.....	51 9	57 6	11.1	73 8	32 2	15.0	14.5
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, etc.....	47 7	53 4	12.1	95 1	45 1	12.9	10.6
Woodworking.....	52 4	61 5	17.4	77 5	38 11	16.1	16.8
Millsawing and machine joinery.....	52 10	66 1	25.1	75 11	39 8	21.5	16.1
Wood box and packing case.....	46 4	59 0	27.3	79 4	38 7	19.3	15.5
Cabinet making, furniture making, upholstery, etc.:							
Firms employing 10 or more.....	52 6	57 9	10.0	76 1	40 6	10.8	16.3
Firms employing less than 10.....	49 5	56 6	14.3	71 4	35 8	14.6	6.2
Carriages, carts, etc.....	58 1	67 0	15.4	82 8	36 6	13.8	19.3
Other woodworking.....	47 9	59 4	24.3	80 4	33 0	24.2	17.5
Paper, printing, etc.....	55 5	57 1	3.0	83 10	35 4	.6	4.4
Paper and paper board.....	53 2	59 11	12.7	76 1	33 10	15.1	6.3
Cardboard boxes, paper bags, and stationery.....	40 3	46 4	15.1	82 4	36 1	10.1	8.5
Wall paper.....	44 11	54 3	20.8	69 6	36 11	10.5	13.9
Stationery and typewriting requisites (not paper).....	42 2	45 1	6.9	77 7	35 9	2.2	8.6
Printing, publishing, and bookbinding.....	64 7	63 3	<sup>2</sup> 2.1	87 10	34 10	<sup>2</sup> 4.2	<sup>2</sup> 9.9
Building and contracting.....	61 3	80 7	31.6	84 6	-----	27.9	-----
Building.....	61 5	79 1	28.8	82 11	-----	24.7	-----
Public works contracting, etc.....	61 3	86 0	40.4	88 4	-----	40.6	-----
Electrical contracting.....	56 9	76 6	34.8	95 2	-----	20.0	-----

<sup>1</sup> Where no figure is given, the total number shown in the returns received was too small to provide a satisfactory basis for the calculation of a general average for the industry.

<sup>2</sup> The figures given for the engineering, etc., industry are based partly on returns from firms who are members of the Engineering and Allied Employers' National Federation, and partly from nonfederated firms. The average earnings shown by the federated firms were considerably higher than those shown by the nonfederated firms; for example, the average weekly earnings of "all workers" in July 1940 (including men, boys, women, and girls) were 96s. 7d. for the federated firms, as compared with 71s. 8d. for the nonfederated firms.

<sup>3</sup> A member of the principal firms in the motor vehicle, aircraft, etc., industry, employing over 40 percent of the total number of workers whose aggregate earnings were shown in the returns received, did not furnish separate particulars of the earnings by sex and age in July 1940. As the earnings of all workers at these firms averaged 120s. 7d., compared with 96s. 7d. at the firms which supplied returns analyzed by sex and age, the average earnings shown in the table for men and women in this industry would probably have been considerably higher if separate figures by sex and age had been supplied by all the firms. If the average earnings given in the table for men and women (based on the limited number of detailed returns available for July 1940) are compared with those computed from all the returns for October 1938, they show the following percentage increases: Men 38, women 25; but these figures also would be considerably higher if complete returns, analyzed by sex and age, were available for July 1940.

<sup>4</sup> As many of the principal firms in the linen industry in Northern Ireland did not supply information for October 1938, inquiries were sent to these firms in July 1940, in addition to those who had furnished returns. Consequently the number of returns received in July 1940, was much greater than in October 1938. While the average earnings shown for July 1940 are based on all returns received, the percentages of increase since October 1938 have been calculated from the data supplied by firms who furnished returns for both dates.

<sup>5</sup> Decrease.

## HOURS OF WORK FOR CIVIL-SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN PANAMA <sup>1</sup>

ALL public offices and Government agencies in Panama will be open continuously from 7 a. m. until 1:30 p. m. without interruption for lunch, effective December 3, 1940. Local banks will operate from 8 a. m. until noon. This change of schedule was inaugurated by the new administration, after a survey of working conditions in various Government departments.

The change is attributed to climatic conditions and is in the interest of increased efficiency and economy. The old schedule was from 8 a. m. to noon and from 2 to 5 p. m. It is believed that by dispensing with the interruption of the "siesta" period, from the daily work schedule, employees will be in better physical condition to accomplish a greater amount of work and have the additional advantage of a half day of leisure.

Commercial establishments are not affected by the change, although most of them close for 2 hours at noon. Such concerns as insurance firms, however, may synchronize their hours with the Government schedule.



## INCREASED WAGES FOR TEXTILE WORKERS IN PERU, 1940 <sup>2</sup>

THE Peruvian Bureau of Labor and Social Welfare made an investigation of the remuneration of laborers in the cotton-textile industry of the Province of Lima. As a result of its findings, a decree was issued on November 6, 1940, increasing wages provisionally until permanent adjustments are effected by the commission appointed for the purpose.

A 12-percent increase was authorized for job workers. Day wages below 2 gold soles <sup>3</sup> were advanced by 40 percent; those from 2.00 to 2.99 soles by 30 percent; those from 3.00 to 3.99 soles by 20 percent; those from 4.00 to 5.99 soles by 12 percent; and those from 6.00 to 9.99 soles by 6 percent. If, as a result of these increases, the wages of one category are below those of an inferior group, they are to be advanced until they are 10 centavos above that group.

The increases will be paid as from August 1, 1940, in periodical installments, according to the conditions fixed by the commission.

<sup>1</sup> Report of Ashley B. Sowell, United States Commercial Attaché at Panama.

<sup>2</sup> Report of Julian Greenup, United States Commercial Attaché at Lima. See also *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1940 (pp. 312-313).

<sup>3</sup> The Peruvian sol (100 centavos) has recently been maintained at about 15.4 cents in United States currency.

## Building Operations

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### SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, DECEMBER 1940 <sup>1</sup>

DECEMBER building-permit reports for all classes of building construction showed a contraseasonal gain of 4.2 percent over November. New nonresidential construction, largely expansion in defense industries, was responsible for the increase, as the reported value of both new residential construction and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures was lower than in November. Permit valuations of new residential construction declined 3.9 percent from November to December and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures showed a decrease of 7.5 percent.

As compared with December 1939 permit valuations for all classes of building construction increased 86.1 percent. All city-size groups reported a greater volume of construction than in the corresponding month in 1939. Gains ranged from 3.9 percent in cities with a population of 5,000 and under 10,000 to 154.8 percent in cities with a population of 50,000 and under 100,000. Permit valuations of new residential construction were 1.3 percent lower than in December 1939, while new nonresidential construction increased 408.1 percent. Additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures showed a gain of 8.0 percent.

#### *Comparison of December 1940 With November 1940 and December 1939*

A summary of building construction in 2,089 identical cities in December 1940, with percentage changes from November 1940 and December 1939 is given in table 1.

<sup>1</sup> More detailed information by geographic division and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, December 1940," copies of which will be furnished upon request.



TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,089 Identical Cities, December 1940

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	December 1940	Percentage change from—		December 1940	Percentage change from—	
		November 1940	December 1939		November 1940	December 1939
All construction.....	43, 194	-20. 1	-10. 3	\$272, 362, 136	+4. 2	+86. 1
New residential.....	14, 907	-13. 9	-23. 1	94, 878, 817	-3. 9	-1. 3
New nonresidential.....	7, 584	-30. 3	-3. 2	156, 561, 823	+11. 8	+408. 1
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	20, 703	-20. 1	-1. 1	20, 921, 496	-7. 5	+8. 0

A summary of permit valuations and the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings in 2,089 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for December 1940 with percentage changes from November 1940 and December 1939.

TABLE 2.—Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,089 Identical Cities, by Type of Dwelling, December 1940

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	December 1940	Percentage change from—		December 1940	Percentage change from—	
		November 1940	December 1939		November 1940	December 1939
All types.....	\$94, 735, 007	-2. 4	+0. 2	26, 754	-1. 8	-0. 8
1-family.....	56, 297, 538	-10. 3	-16. 3	13, 562	-12. 6	-24. 0
2-family <sup>1</sup> .....	2, 941, 108	-33. 6	-39. 7	1, 133	-33. 8	-40. 6
Multifamily <sup>2</sup> .....	35, 496, 361	+18. 6	+58. 4	12, 059	+20. 6	+66. 9

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

### Construction During Calendar Years, 1939 and 1940

Cumulative totals for the calendar year 1940 compared with 1939 are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Class of Construction, Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, 1939 and 1940

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction		Percentage change
	1940	1939	
All construction.....	\$2, 531, 214, 215	\$2, 066, 580, 178	+22. 5
New residential.....	1, 267, 315, 561	1, 135, 758, 863	+11. 6
New nonresidential.....	920, 093, 800	589, 908, 830	+57. 6
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	334, 204, 854	340, 912, 485	-2. 0

Table 4 presents the permit valuation and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over for the calendar years 1939 and 1940.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units by Type of Dwelling 1939 and 1940*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of house-keeping dwellings		Percentage change	Number of family-dwelling units		Percentage change
	1940	1939		1940	1939	
All types.....	\$1, 247, 672, 391	\$1, 120, 461, 902	+11. 4	347, 132	307, 690	+12. 8
1-family.....	870, 790, 205	805, 350, 933	+8. 1	219, 328	208, 240	+5. 3
2-family <sup>1</sup> .....	46, 737, 546	46, 271, 873	+1. 0	18, 307	16, 953	+8. 0
Multifamily <sup>2</sup> .....	330, 144, 640	268, 839, 096	+22. 8	109, 497	82, 497	+32. 7

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

### Analysis by Size of City, December 1940

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in December 1940 with percentage changes from November 1940 and December 1939, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Various Classes of Building Construction in 2,089 Identical Cities, by Size of City, December 1940*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, December 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, December 1940	Percentage change from—	
			No- vember 1940	De- cember 1939		No- vember 1940	De- cember 1939
All reporting cities .....	2, 089	\$272, 362, 136	+4. 2	+86. 1	\$94, 878, 817	-3. 9	-1. 3
500,000 and over .....	14	72, 531, 809	+10. 8	+54. 2	27, 081, 852	-7. 1	-20. 2
100,000 and under 500,000 .....	79	72, 242, 523	+36. 7	+101. 5	28, 178, 108	+42. 9	+30. 9
50,000 and under 100,000 .....	97	39, 151, 272	-16. 0	+154. 8	5, 716, 750	-25. 5	-47. 7
25,000 and under 50,000 .....	165	38, 636, 661	+30. 4	+122. 6	8, 766, 579	-26. 1	-16. 1
10,000 and under 25,000 .....	435	28, 215, 824	-38. 9	+79. 8	14, 420, 382	-11. 8	+46. 9
5,000 and under 10,000 .....	367	8, 119, 754	-29. 3	+3. 9	5, 111, 334	-34. 8	+6. 0
2,500 and under 5,000 .....	456	10, 612, 203	+90. 7	+129. 1	3, 495, 265	-5. 9	+23. 4
1,000 and under 2,500 .....	476	2, 852, 090	-20. 5	+11. 5	2, 108, 547	-11. 5	+15. 1

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Popula- tion (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, December 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, December 1940	Percentage change from—		
		No- vember 1940	De- cember 1939		No- vember 1940	De- cember 1939	
All reporting cities .....	\$156, 561, 823	+11. 8	+408. 1	\$20, 021, 496	-7. 5	+8. 0	60, 370, 915
500,000 and over .....	37, 470, 443	+29. 2	+503. 5	7, 979, 514	+9. 2	+15. 6	21, 449, 853
100,000 and under 50,000 .....	39, 178, 760	+41. 8	+330. 4	4, 885, 655	-11. 0	-6. 5	15, 017, 880
50,000 and under 100,000 .....	31, 589, 272	-13. 4	+1,068. 2	1, 845, 250	-25. 9	+6. 0	6, 434, 022
25,000 and under 50,000 .....	27, 751, 305	+76. 4	+480. 3	2, 118, 777	+3. 9	-0. 2	5, 810, 606
10,000 and under 25,000 .....	11, 480, 963	-56. 7	+183. 7	2, 314, 479	-29. 8	+26. 6	6, 690, 250
5,000 and under 10,000 .....	2, 042, 467	-23. 3	-1. 6	965, 953	-0. 5	+5. 0	2, 580, 506
2,500 and under 5,000 .....	6, 589, 818	+491. 0	+391. 7	527, 120	-28. 3	+14. 5	1, 624, 950
1,000 and under 2,500 .....	458, 795	-49. 3	-17. 3	284, 748	-5. 3	+66. 2	762, 848

The permit valuation and number of new dwelling units provided, by type of dwelling and size of city, in the 2,089 identical cities reporting for November and December 1940, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,089 Identical Cities, by Size of City and Type of Dwelling, December 1940*

Size of city	Permit valuation of house-keeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	December 1940	November 1940	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings <sup>1</sup>		Multifamily dwellings <sup>2</sup>	
				December 1940	November 1940	December 1940	November 1940	December 1940	November 1940	December 1940	November 1940
Total, all reporting cities	\$94, 735, 007	\$97, 112, 991	-2.4	26, 754	27, 235	13, 562	15, 526	1, 133	1, 711	12, 059	9, 998
500,000 and over	27, 055, 852	28, 869, 309	-6.3	7, 524	8, 074	3, 198	3, 291	361	765	3, 965	4, 018
100,000 and under 500,000	28, 170, 108	19, 426, 876	+45.0	8, 876	5, 695	2, 965	3, 535	356	378	5, 555	1, 782
50,000 and under 100,000	5, 716, 750	7, 549, 789	-24.3	1, 422	1, 984	1, 178	1, 416	110	156	134	412
25,000 and under 50,000	8, 712, 679	11, 811, 886	-26.2	2, 415	3, 585	1, 318	1, 731	131	163	966	1, 691
10,000 and under 25,000	14, 409, 882	15, 572, 681	-7.5	3, 883	4, 251	2, 545	2, 760	85	124	1, 253	1, 367
5,000 and under 10,000	5, 098, 124	7, 802, 813	-34.7	1, 273	2, 062	1, 164	1, 385	41	72	68	605
2,500 and under 5,000	3, 463, 065	3, 703, 705	-6.5	873	996	734	862	32	19	107	115
1,000 and under 2,500	2, 108, 547	2, 375, 932	-11.3	488	588	400	546	17	34	11	8

<sup>1</sup> Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

<sup>2</sup> Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,089 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the



report. For December 1940 the value of these buildings amounted to \$141,131,000, for November 1940 to \$120,458,000, and for December 1939 to \$35,302,000.

### Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during December 1940, November 1940, and December 1939 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, December 1940 <sup>1</sup>.

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	December 1940	November 1940 <sup>2</sup>	December 1939 <sup>2</sup>
Total.....	\$783,965,802	\$297,840,725	\$94,769,042
Public Works Administration:			
Federal.....	2,990	203,799	207,446
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.....	9,839	0	710
E. R. A. A.....	4,964	3,578,382	3,745,120
P. W. A. A., 1938.....	2,042,670	407,994	11,014,859
Federal agency projects under the WPA.....	107,972	31,176	370,041
Regular Federal appropriations.....	769,904,293	279,817,946	42,817,239
United States Housing Authority.....	11,893,174	13,801,428	36,613,627

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary, subject to revision.

<sup>2</sup> Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for December 1940, November 1940, and December 1939 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
December 1940.....	\$2,986,028	\$16,649,290
November 1940.....	1,258,398	5,857,365
December 1939.....	607,005	4,933,278

## Retail Prices

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### FOOD PRICES IN DECEMBER 1940<sup>1</sup>

PRICES of food bought by moderate-income families rose 1.4 percent from November 12 to December 17. The advance was due to a sharp rise in the price of butter, a seasonal increase in the price of fresh vegetables, and higher prices for other important foods such as milk, flour, cured pork, and lard. Butter prices rose about 12 percent to a level 16 percent higher than in December 1939. Meat prices, which declined 5 percent between mid-September and mid-November, moved upward slightly in December because of higher prices for cured pork, chickens, and fresh fish. Beef prices remained unchanged for the month, while seasonal decreases were reported for fresh pork, lamb, and veal. Preliminary reports on retail food prices received since December 17 indicate a moderate advance in meat prices and substantial decreases in the prices of butter and eggs.

Food costs on December 17 were still relatively low as compared with recent years. The index of 54 foods was about 3 percent lower than the 1935-39 average. Food costs were 2.4 percent higher in December 1940 than in December a year ago. Some of the most important commodities registering increases over the 12 months' period were butter and eggs, round steak and rib roast, roasting chickens, pork chops, oranges, and fresh milk. Important commodities showing decreases for the year were potatoes, sugar, and coffee.

#### *Indexes of Prices by Commodity Groups*

Indexes of retail food costs by commodity groups for December and November 1940 and December 1939 are shown in table 1.

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<sup>1</sup> More detailed information on retail prices of food is given in the Retail Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined,<sup>1</sup> by Commodity Groups, December and November 1940 and December 1939*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1940		1939
	Dec. 17 <sup>2</sup>	Nov. 12	Dec. 12
All foods.....	97.3	95.9	94.9
Cereals and bakery products.....	94.8	94.7	95.1
Meats.....	97.4	97.3	91.7
Dairy products.....	107.4	103.0	102.2
Eggs.....	111.7	115.2	96.9
Fruits and vegetables.....	90.4	87.3	91.9
Fresh.....	89.5	85.5	91.1
Canned.....	91.3	91.3	93.3
Dried.....	99.6	100.1	100.5
Beverages.....	90.3	90.3	95.0
Fats and oils.....	80.1	80.2	86.0
Sugar.....	94.7	94.8	103.5

<sup>1</sup> Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers have been combined with the use of population weights.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.

### Average Prices<sup>7</sup> of Individual Items

In mid-December prices of 22 of the 54 foods included in the index were higher than in November, 14 were lower, and for 18 there was no change. Of the 53 foods for which last year's prices are available, 29 were quoted at higher prices, 18 at lower prices, and for 6 there was no change. Average prices of each of 63 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for December and November 1940 and December 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, December and November 1940 and December 1939*

Article	1940		1939
	Dec. 17 <sup>1</sup>	Nov. 12	Dec. 12
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds.....	41.3	40.8	42.6
Macaroni.....                    pound.....	13.9	13.8	14.3
Wheat cereal <sup>2</sup> .....                    28-oz. pkg.....	23.6	23.6	23.8
Corn flakes.....                    8-oz. pkg.....	7.1	7.0	7.0
Corn meal.....                    pound.....	4.3	4.2	4.1
Rice <sup>2</sup> .....                    do.....	7.9	7.9	8.0
Rolled oats <sup>2</sup> .....                    do.....	7.1	7.1	7.1
Bakery products:			
Bread, white.....                    do.....	7.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....                    do.....	8.8	8.8	8.8
Bread, rye.....                    do.....	9.1	9.1	9.1
Vanilla cookies.....                    do.....	25.0	25.1	25.0
Soda crackers.....                    do.....	14.9	15.0	15.1
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak.....                    do.....	37.7	37.7	34.6
Rib roast.....                    do.....	31.0	31.0	28.6
Chuck roast.....                    do.....	25.1	25.1	22.9
Veal: Cutlets.....                    do.....	43.1	43.8	41.5

See footnotes at end of table.



TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, December and November 1940 and December 1939—Continued

Article	1940		1939
	Dec. 17 <sup>1</sup>	Nov. 12	Dec. 12
	Cents	Cents	Cents
Pork:			
Chops.....pound	26.6	27.9	25.0
Bacon, sliced.....do	28.9	28.5	28.7
Ham, sliced <sup>2</sup> .....do	44.0	43.7	43.8
Ham, whole.....do	25.0	24.2	25.3
Salt pork.....do	16.4	16.4	15.9
Lamb:			
Leg.....do	26.5	26.9	25.8
Rib chops.....do	33.5	33.5	33.1
Poultry: Roasting chickens.....do	29.9	29.2	27.5
Fish:			
Fresh, frozen.....do	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )	( <sup>3</sup> )
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can	15.7	15.7	14.7
Salmon, red <sup>2</sup> .....do	26.2	26.1	25.1
Dairy products:			
Butter.....pound	41.8	37.4	35.9
Cheese.....do	26.6	26.1	26.2
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart	13.0	12.8	12.8
Milk, fresh (store).....do	11.8	11.7	11.8
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) <sup>2</sup> .....do	12.6	12.4	12.5
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can	7.0	7.0	7.0
Eggs.....dozen	39.8	40.7	34.2
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound	5.0	4.7	4.2
Bananas.....do	6.6	6.6	6.4
Oranges.....dozen	27.9	28.4	27.5
Beans, green.....pound	9.5	7.8	12.8
Cabbage.....do	2.8	2.5	3.5
Carrots.....bunch	5.6	5.2	5.5
Lettuce.....head	8.4	8.0	7.8
Onions.....pound	3.5	3.3	3.2
Potatoes.....15 pounds	28.9	28.1	36.5
Spinach.....pound	7.0	5.5	6.0
Sweetpotatoes.....do	4.6	3.9	3.6
Canned:			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can	16.6	16.6	17.1
Pineapple.....do	20.9	20.9	20.9
Beans, green <sup>2</sup> .....No. 2 can	9.9	10.0	10.0
Corn, green.....do	10.6	10.6	10.5
Peas.....do	13.4	13.3	13.8
Tomatoes.....do	8.3	8.4	8.7
Dried:			
Prunes.....pound	9.6	9.7	9.0
Navy beans.....do	6.5	6.5	6.7
Beverages:			
Coffee.....do	20.5	20.5	22.1
Tea.....¼ pound	17.6	17.6	17.3
Cocoa <sup>2</sup> .....8-oz. can	9.1	9.1	9.0
Fats and oils:			
Lard.....pound	9.2	9.1	10.4
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do	11.3	11.4	12.2
In other containers.....do	18.3	18.4	19.5
Salad dressing.....pint	20.1	20.2	( <sup>4</sup> )
Oleomargarine.....pound	15.5	15.7	16.4
Peanut butter.....do	17.7	17.8	17.9
Sugar and sweets:			
Sugar.....10 pounds	50.9	51.0	55.7
Corn sirup <sup>2</sup> .....24-oz. can	13.6	13.6	13.4
Molasses <sup>2</sup> .....18-oz. can	13.5	13.5	13.4

<sup>1</sup> Preliminary.<sup>2</sup> Not included in index.<sup>3</sup> Composite prices not computed.<sup>4</sup> Effective January 1940, Salad dressing replaced mayonnaise in the food-cost index.

## Details by Regions and Cities

Retail food costs advanced in all 51 cities between November 12 and December 17 and were higher than for the same period last year in all cities except Dallas (Tex.), Charleston (S. C.), and Kansas City (Mo.). Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for December and November 1940 and December 1939.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,<sup>1</sup> December and November 1940 and December 1939

(1935-39=100)

Region and city	1940		1939	Region and city	1940		1939
	Dec. 17 <sup>2</sup>	Nov. 12	Dec. 12		Dec. 17 <sup>2</sup>	Nov. 12	Dec. 12
United States.....	97.3	95.9	94.9	South Atlantic:			
New England:				Atlanta.....	95.2	93.4	93.6
Boston.....	94.7	93.5	92.8	Baltimore.....	96.8	95.3	94.6
Bridgeport.....	96.3	95.3	93.0	Charleston, S. C.....	96.3	95.1	97.4
Fall River.....	97.1	96.3	95.3	Jacksonville.....	99.0	97.5	97.4
Manchester.....	97.2	96.2	95.0	Norfolk.....	97.1	94.7	94.0
New Haven.....	95.4	94.4	93.5	Richmond.....	94.5	93.4	92.5
Portland, Maine.....	94.6	93.9	92.0	Savannah.....	100.2	98.5	96.9
Providence.....	96.7	96.2	93.3	Washington, D. C.....	96.6	93.9	93.8
Middle Atlantic:				East South Central:			
Buffalo.....	98.9	97.4	94.3	Birmingham.....	96.4	93.8	93.0
Newark.....	98.2	97.1	96.0	Louisville.....	95.9	94.3	94.0
New York.....	98.6	97.4	97.1	Memphis.....	95.6	92.0	92.8
Philadelphia.....	94.8	93.6	94.2	Mobile.....	96.8	94.8	95.8
Pittsburgh.....	97.8	96.3	93.3	West South Central:			
Rochester.....	100.1	98.3	96.0	Dallas.....	92.2	92.1	94.4
Scranton.....	99.1	97.1	95.1	Houston.....	102.1	101.3	98.8
East North Central:				Little Rock.....	96.0	93.5	95.4
Chicago.....	97.2	95.9	94.6	New Orleans.....	100.5	98.7	98.5
Cincinnati.....	95.8	94.5	91.7	Mountain:			
Cleveland.....	98.7	96.7	95.7	Butte.....	98.2	96.3	94.9
Columbus, Ohio.....	94.0	91.4	92.5	Denver.....	95.9	92.9	95.0
Detroit.....	95.8	94.8	94.1	Salt Lake City.....	98.6	98.3	96.6
Indianapolis.....	98.8	96.5	94.0	Pacific:			
Milwaukee.....	95.1	94.3	92.7	Los Angeles.....	99.9	98.8	94.6
Peoria.....	99.3	97.6	96.2	Portland, Oreg.....	100.7	99.9	97.9
Springfield, Ill.....	97.3	94.9	96.1	San Francisco.....	97.9	97.8	96.1
West North Central:				Seattle.....	100.2	99.2	96.6
Kansas City.....	92.9	91.6	93.4				
Minneapolis.....	100.8	97.5	98.0				
Omaha.....	98.7	96.9	95.5				
St. Louis.....	99.3	96.3	95.1				
St. Paul.....	99.8	96.9	96.4				

<sup>1</sup> Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary.

<sup>3</sup> Revised.

ELECTRICITY PRICES,<sup>1</sup> DECEMBER 1940

RESIDENTIAL rates for electricity are secured quarterly in March, June, September, and December, from 51 cities. These rates are used for computing average prices and typical bills in each city for quantities of electricity which most nearly approximate the consumption requirements for the usual domestic services for a five-room house, including living room, dining room, kitchen, and two bedrooms.

<sup>1</sup> Average prices of electricity for 25, 40, and 100 kilowatt-hours for 1923 through 1938 are shown in Bulletin No. 664.

Reports published quarterly for March, June, and September show only the price changes which occurred during the preceding 3 months. The December report presents prices effective December 15 in each of the 51 cities, and a record of changes for the preceding year.

### Prices on December 15, 1940

Prices of electricity for domestic consumption in 1940 continued the long time downward trend. In December, average prices were 1.1 percent lower than in December 1939 for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small appliances, and 1.2 percent lower for 100 kilowatt-hours, which include a refrigerator in the appliances used. These decreases resulted from price changes in 19 cities as shown on page 470.

Indexes for these two services for 51 cities combined based on the 3-year average 1923-25 as 100 are shown in table 4 for December of specified years from 1923 through 1936 and for quarterly periods from 1937 through 1940.

### Details by Cities

Indexes of price changes for each of 51 cities for the use of 25 kilowatt-hours and 100 kilowatt-hours for March, June, September, and December 1940, and December 1939 and typical monthly bills and average prices per kilowatt-hour for amounts of electricity representative of the requirements of 3 residential services on December 15, 1940, are given in the Retail Prices pamphlet for December 1940.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Electricity for 51 Cities Combined, December of Specified Years 1923-36, and March, June, September, and December 1937 to 1940*

[1923-25=100]

Date	Lighting and small appliances, 25 kwh.	Lighting appliances and refrigerator, 100 kwh.	Date	Lighting and small appliances, 25 kwh.	Lighting appliances and refrigerator, 100 kwh.
1923: December.....	101.1	101.2	1938: March.....	75.5	67.3
1925: December.....	97.3	97.1	June.....	75.4	67.1
1927: December.....	94.0	91.5	September.....	75.1	66.8
1929: December.....	89.7	84.4	December.....	74.8	66.6
1931: December.....	88.3	77.0	1939: March.....	74.6	66.3
1933: December.....	84.9	75.1	June.....	74.4	66.1
1935: December.....	80.7	70.2	September.....	74.1	65.9
1936: December.....	78.3	68.9	December.....	73.7	65.6
1937: March.....	76.5	68.1	1940: March.....	73.6	65.7
June.....	76.4	67.9	June.....	73.2	65.3
September.....	76.4	67.8	September.....	73.0	65.0
December.....	76.0	67.4	December <sup>1</sup> .....	72.9	64.8

<sup>1</sup> Indexes are preliminary.



*Price Changes Between December 1939 and December 1940*

Reductions in residential electricity rates became effective during 1940 in 17 of the 51 reporting cities as follows:

Boston	New York (Richmond)	Washington
Bridgeport	Pittsburgh	Louisville
Fall River	Rochester	Portland, Oreg.
New Haven	Cleveland <sup>2</sup>	San Francisco
Providence	Columbus	Seattle
Newark	Peoria	

In Dallas and Houston, increases were due to the application of the defense tax.

Decreases in most of the 17 cities were greatest for the use of 100 or more kilowatt-hours per month. In 10 cities there was no change for customers using 25 kilowatt-hours. The greatest decreases for 25 kilowatt-hours were 29.6 percent in Portland (Oreg.), 22.1 percent in Seattle, and 12.6 percent in Louisville and the Borough of Richmond in New York City. The reduction in the Borough of Richmond represented the introduction of lower rates about the first of June, under which the greatest decreases were applicable for larger consumers. A subsequent increase in July in the number of kilowatt-hours included in the initial charge lowered costs proportionately more to smaller consumers. A considerable reduction was also applicable for the use of 100 and 250 kilowatt-hours in Louisville, Portland (Oreg.), and the Borough of Richmond. The greatest decreases for these larger amounts of electricity were in the Borough of Richmond, where the cost of 100 kilowatt-hours was reduced 18.6 percent, and in Columbus, where the municipal plant serving about 5 percent of the residential customers decreased the cost for 250 kilowatt-hours by 24.7 percent. In other cities few reductions exceeding 10 percent were reported for any of the 3 services, and in 10 of the 17 cities the decreases ranged from a fraction of 1 percent to less than 7 percent.

Typical net monthly bills, average prices per kilowatt-hours, and percentage of change between December 15, 1939, and December 15, 1940, for the 19 cities in which changes occurred are shown in the Retail Prices pamphlet for December 1940.

**GAS PRICES,<sup>3</sup> DECEMBER 1940**

RESIDENTIAL rates for gas are secured quarterly in March, June, September, and December from 50 cities. Since December 1934 these rates have been used for computing average prices and typical bills for each city for quantities of gas which approximate the aver-

<sup>2</sup> Privately owned utility serving about 80 percent of the residential customers.

<sup>3</sup> Average prices of gas for 10.6 and 30.6 therms for 1923 through June 1936 are shown in Bulletin No. 628.

age residential consumption requirements per month for each of four combinations of services. In order to put the prices upon a comparable basis it was necessary to convert the normal consumption requirements used for computing monthly bills into an equivalent heating value expressed in therms (1 therm=100,000 B. t. u.).

A summarized report of prices of gas for each year is published in December. This includes a record of prices effective on December 15 for each city, and a résumé of the changes which occurred during the preceding 12 months. Reports for March, June, and September show only the changes by cities for the preceding 3 months.

### *Prices by Kinds of Gas on December 15, 1940*

The composite indexes (1923-25=100) covering costs of the kinds of gas sold in each of 50 cities showed decreases between December 1939 and December 1940 of 1.8 percent for the use of 10.6 therms and 1.6 percent for 30.6 therms. Separate indexes for manufactured, natural, and a mixture of manufactured and natural gas have been computed from prices for cities using each of the three kinds. The greatest average change as compared with December 1939 was for mixed manufactured and natural gas. Percentage changes for the year for manufactured, natural, and mixed manufactured and natural gas were as follows:

	10.6 therms	30.6 therms
Manufactured gas (24 cities).....	+0.2	-1.1
Natural gas (19 cities).....	-0.9	-0.6
Mixed manufactured and natural gas (7 cities).....	-8.6	-3.9

Table 5 presents composite indexes for each of the 2 services for all gas, 50 cities combined, and separate indexes for manufactured, natural, and mixed manufactured and natural gas for December of specified years from 1923 to 1936, and for quarterly periods from 1937 through 1940.

### *Details by Cities*

Indexes of price changes for each of the 50 cities for the use of 10.6 therms and 30.6 therms for March, June, September, and December 1940 and December 1939, and typical net monthly bills and average prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm for each of 4 services, based on rates effective December 15, 1940, are shown in the Retail Prices pamphlet for December 1940.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Prices of Gas, December of Specified Years, 1923–36, and March, June, September, and December 1937 to 1940

[1923-25=100]

Date	10.6 therms, range				30.6 therms, range and automatic water heater			
	All gas, 50 cities	Manu- factured 1923, 40 cities; 1940, 24 cities	Natural 1923, 7 cities; 1940, 19 cities	Mixed 1923, 3 cities; 1940, 7 cities	All gas, 50 cities	Manu- factured 1923, 40 cities; 1940, 24 cities	Natural 1923, 7 cities; 1940, 19 cities	Mixed 1923, 3 cities; 1940, 7 cities
1923: December.....	99.5	99.5	99.3	99.4	99.5	99.6	98.5	99.4
1925: December.....	100.2	99.7	107.1	98.9	100.2	99.6	108.1	98.9
1927: December.....	100.1	99.6	109.3	101.0	99.3	99.0	108.0	101.0
1929: December.....	99.7	100.1	119.2	98.2	95.4	97.0	108.3	98.1
1931: December.....	98.3	100.0	119.2	99.3	91.1	94.2	108.2	98.8
1933: December.....	97.2	99.2	118.8	97.7	88.4	92.1	107.9	92.2
1935: December.....	97.2	100.0	114.1	98.3	86.8	90.4	104.0	92.4
1936: December.....	96.7	99.8	112.9	98.3	85.5	90.0	101.4	92.2
1937: March.....	96.6	99.8	112.8	98.2	85.5	89.9	101.2	92.2
June.....	96.6	99.8	112.7	98.3	82.6	85.3	101.2	92.3
September.....	96.8	100.0	112.7	98.4	82.6	85.2	101.2	92.5
December.....	96.8	100.0	112.7	98.4	85.1	89.4	101.2	92.4
1938: March.....	98.6	100.2	112.7	107.8	85.8	89.5	100.9	96.0
June.....	98.8	100.7	112.3	107.8	83.4	85.8	100.5	96.0
September.....	98.8	100.7	112.3	107.8	83.4	85.8	100.5	96.0
December.....	98.8	100.7	112.3	107.6	86.0	90.0	100.5	95.8
1939: March.....	99.3	100.5	116.5	107.5	86.3	89.8	103.9	95.7
June.....	99.4	100.5	116.5	107.7	83.8	85.6	103.9	95.9
September.....	99.3	100.5	116.0	107.7	83.4	85.6	102.9	94.4
December.....	99.8	101.4	116.0	107.4	85.9	89.7	102.9	94.0
1940: March.....	99.9	101.6	116.0	107.4	85.7	89.4	103.3	94.0
June.....	98.2	101.6	115.6	98.6	82.3	84.8	103.1	90.9
September.....	98.3	101.6	116.1	98.4	82.3	84.8	103.6	90.6
December <sup>1</sup> .....	98.0	101.6	114.9	98.2	84.5	88.7	102.3	90.3

<sup>1</sup> Revised.<sup>2</sup> Indexes are preliminary.*Price Changes Between December 1939 and December 1940*

Changes in the price of gas for residential customers during 1940 occurred in 18 of the 50 reporting cities. This report covers changes for those 18 cities and for 1 city, Columbus, for which a rate change, effective August 1939, was not received in time to be included in the summary report for 1939. Six of the 19 cities were served with manufactured gas, 8 with natural gas, and 5 with mixed manufactured and natural gas as shown below:

Manufactured gas	Natural gas	Mixed manufactured and natural gas
New York	Pittsburgh	Chicago
Philadelphia	Columbus	Cincinnati
Rochester	Memphis	Minneapolis
Omaha	Mobile	Washington
Richmond	Houston	Louisville
Birmingham	Little Rock	
	New Orleans	
	San Francisco	



*Manufactured gas.*—Prices were lower in 5 of the 6 cities serving manufactured gas. The greatest decrease was in Birmingham for customers using over 2,000 cubic feet per month, where reductions for about one-fifth of the domestic customers, i. e., those served under the "objective" rate, ranged from 11.6 percent for 19.6 therms to 31.4 percent for 40.6 therms. Smaller decreases of from 3.0 percent to 6.9 percent were reported for those services under the "immediate" rate. In New York City decreases for the use of over 3,100 cubic feet of gas were reported for 4 of the 5 boroughs. New rates for the Borough of Brooklyn lowered the cost as much as 14.4 percent for customers using 40.6 therms. As usual, since 1937, rates were reduced for the summer months in the Boroughs of the Bronx, Manhattan, and Queens. In Rochester an increase in rates effective in March resulted in higher costs for all customers, the greatest of which were applicable to the monthly use of comparatively small amounts of gas amounting to 14.7 percent for 10.6 therms and 9.3 percent for 19.6 therms. This was followed in December by the introduction of a lower rate schedule available to customers using gas for automatic water heating, under which decreases amounted to 10.2 percent for 30.6 therms and 8.1 percent for 40.6 therms, bringing the costs of these services below the level of December 1939, by 3.8 and 2.4 percent, respectively.

*Natural gas.*—Lower prices were reported for 6 of the 8 cities using natural gas. The greatest decreases were in San Francisco, where reductions in costs for the four services ranged between 10.2 and 13.5 percent, and in Houston, where the decrease for 10.6 therms was about 14 percent, with gradually diminishing reductions for a greater use of gas. Increases in the heating value of gas in two cities lowered costs between 1 and 3 percent in Mobile, and approximately 4.5 percent in New Orleans. One of the three companies serving Pittsburgh which supplies gas to about one-tenth of the residential customers in that city, reported a rate advance, with increases ranging from 30.9 percent for 10.6 therms, to about 80 percent for 19.6 therms, with lesser advances for greater use of gas beyond that amount. A higher rate schedule, effective August 1939, in Columbus provided uniform costs for gas for all customers in the city, by replacing the separate rate schedules of the two companies which had merged in 1935. Increases in the costs for the four services ranged between 9.9 percent for 40.6 therms and 30.1 percent for 19.6 therms for about 70 percent of the residential customers, and between 21.3 percent for 10.6 therms and 48.9 percent for 19.6 therms for the remainder.

*Mixed manufactured and natural gas.*—Prices decreased in 3 of the 5 cities for which changes in rates for mixed natural and manufactured gas were reported. The greatest decrease was reported for Chicago to customers using small amounts of gas. The reduction for 10.6 therms was 14.2 percent. Cincinnati reported the usual seasonal changes in the heating value of the gas with resulting price changes. In Louisville higher rates affecting all residential customers showed the greatest advance for the use of small amounts of gas. The increases ranged from 16.3 percent for 10.6 therms to 10.8 percent for 40.6 therms.

Typical net monthly bills, average prices per thousand cubic feet and per therm, and percentages of change from December 1939 through December 1940 are shown in the Retail Prices pamphlet for December 1940.



## FOOD AND CLOTHING PRICES IN THE SOVIET UNION, JULY 1940<sup>1</sup>

THE prices of all classes of foodstuffs which were available for sale in the Soviet Union on July 1, 1940, had increased by 49.2 percent as compared with July 1, 1939, and by 72.8 percent as compared with July 1, 1936. Over this period the price of vegetables had greatly increased, and in the July 1940 market there was an absence of canned goods, fruits, and berries.

As compared with the first 5 months of the year, the general food situation in Moscow on July 1, 1940, showed marked signs of improvement. This improvement, however, which was in fact seasonal, was caused not only by a better and more plentiful supply of goods, but also by increased prices and by Government measures which have actually or in effect lowered industrial wages; all these factors had the net result of forcing down the purchasing power of a large section of the population.

The purchase of clothing in the State stores early in 1940 was practically impossible, because of the limited and irregular supply. During the latter part of June 1940, the majority of the large department and textile stores were closed down and they were not reopened until July 15, 1940. On that date they appeared to be supplied with

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<sup>1</sup> Data supplied by the United States Embassy at Moscow.

more or less adequate stocks of various goods offered at prices exceeding by an average of 131.7 percent those quoted for the same articles on July 1, 1936, and by 83.5 percent those quoted on July 1, 1939. Since the number of articles available on July 1, 1939, was very limited, it is probable that comparison with the 1936 price level would reflect more closely the July 1940 situation with regard to clothing. In spite of the large increase in prices, also, the stocks of most articles of clothing were already running low only a few days after the stores reopened on July 15, 1940, and in August they were scarce again; this demonstrates that the present demand for clothing is so great that the available supply, even at high prices, is very inadequate.

The following table shows the July 1, 1940, prices of commodities which were available in the markets on that date together with their prices on July 1 of 1936 and 1939. The following articles were not available in the markets on July 1, 1940: Imported cocoa and coffee, olive oil, barley, oats, and buckwheat grits, rolled oats, vermicelli, macaroni, noodles, flour (30 percent and 72 percent), rice, veal, pork roast, fresh ham, mutton, chicken, turkey, frozen salmon, sturgeon or perch, lard, canned goods of any kind, evaporated milk, sauerkraut, cucumber pickles, dry onions, mushrooms, beets, and fruits, berries, or nuts of any kind, pipe tobacco, men's wool suits, cotton and woolen knitted underwear, woolen socks, silk stockings, linen towels, knitted cotton and woolen sweaters, gloves of leather or kid, and cotton shirting.

All prices are expressed in rubles, and because Russian currency is completely controlled, there is no way of evaluating the rubles in terms of United States currency.



*Retail Prices of Specified Commodities in Government Stores of the Soviet Union, July 1, 1936, 1939, and 1940<sup>1</sup>*

Commodity	Retail prices (in rubles) <sup>2</sup> on July 1—			Commodity	Retail prices (in rubles) <sup>2</sup> on July 1—		
	1936	1939	1940		1936	1939	1940
<b>Bread:</b>				<b>Cheese:</b>			
Black (rye).....Kg..	0.85	0.85	<sup>3</sup> 0.85	Swiss.....Kg..	22.00	24.80	31.50
White (wheat).....Kg..	1.70	1.70	1.70	American.....Kg..	22.00	22.20	29.00
French loaf.....200 gm..	1.08	1.20	1.20	Holland.....Kg..	12.50	14.80	25.30
<b>Candy:</b>				<b>Butter:</b>			
Bon-bons, first quality.....Kg..	16.80	16.80	42.00	First quality.....Kg..	19.50	21.00	28.00
Chocolate, best.....Kg..	29.60	44.40	100.00	Second quality.....Kg..	16.00	17.50	26.00
Tea.....400 gm..	40.00	40.00	40.00	Eggs.....10..	4.00	7.50	8.50
Pepper, black, ground.....100 gm..	8.00	8.00	8.00	Suit, man's, common quality.....Each	325.00	450.00	695.00
Sunflower oil.....Kg..	13.50	15.65	15.65	Overcoat, best Soviet wool cloth.....Each	1,100.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	2,400.00
<b>Sugar:</b>				Overcoat, common quality.....Each	300.00	460.00	999.20
Granulated.....Kg..	3.80	3.80	5.00	<b>Socks:</b>			
Lump.....Kg..	4.10	4.10	5.50	Rayon.....Pair..	7.00	7.50	10.00
Wheat meal.....Kg..	4.50	4.50	4.50	Cotton.....do..	3.00	3.60	5.00
Salt.....Kg..	.05	.05	.05	<b>Stockings, women's:</b>			
<b>Beef:</b>				Cotton.....Pair..	3.20	4.50	8.20
Steak.....Kg..	12.50	14.00	20.80	Rayon.....do..	19.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	22.00
Roast.....Kg..	9.60	10.50	18.00	<b>Shoes:</b>			
Second quality (for soup).....Kg..	8.00	8.00	14.00	Men's:			
Pork chops.....Kg..	9.00	14.40	21.40	Leather.....do..	180.00	175.00	280.00
Duck.....Kg..	11.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	21.00	Best quality.....do..	250.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	510.00
Salmon, cured, first quality.....Kg..	18.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	40.00	Rubbersoled.....do..	60.00	75.00	180.00
Sturgeon, cured, first quality.....Kg..	20.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	45.00	<b>Women's:</b>			
<b>Caviar:</b>				Leather.....do..	180.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	404.00
Granulated.....Kg..	40.00	60.00	100.00	Best quality.....do..	250.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	478.00
Compressed.....Kg..	32.00	52.90	82.60	Common quality.....Pair..	60.00	85.00	160.00
<b>Herring:</b>				<b>Overshoes, rubbers:</b>			
Salted.....Kg..	7.00	6.60	8.00	Men's.....do..	25.00	19.65	22.00
Smoked.....Kg..	7.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	14.00	Women's.....do..	25.00	19.65	22.00
Ham, smoked.....Kg..	18.00	18.00	27.00	Shirt, cotton.....Each	50.00	65.00	123.00
Bacon.....Kg..	15.00	16.00	23.00	Sheet, cotton, single bed.....Each	18.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	35.00
<b>Sausage:</b>				Tablecloth, linen.....Each	40.00	45.00	88.00
Ordinary.....Kg..	10.00	10.00	16.00	Necktie, rayon.....do..	12.00	19.00	19.00
Vienna.....Kg..	10.00	12.00	19.00	Hats, felt.....do..	35.00	40.00	44.00
Hamburger.....Kg..	16.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	23.00	<b>Caps:</b>			
Cracow.....Kg..	14.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	19.00	Woolen.....do..	22.00	35.00	48.00
Salami.....Kg..	28.00	30.00	37.00	<b>Cloth:</b>			
Salt pork, fat.....Kg..	22.00	( <sup>4</sup> )	35.00	Woolen:			
Laundry soap.....Kg..	3.00	3.10	3.10	Light.....Meter	110.00	210.00	415.00
Glycerin soap.....Cake..	1.35	1.60	2.20	Light (for dresses).....Meter..	120.00	180.00	325.00
Matches.....Box..	.03	.03	.03	Heavy.....do..	200.00	250.00	550.00
Kerosene.....Liter	.47	.65	.65	Flannel, cotton.....do..	5.50	7.50	16.00
Potatoes.....Kg..	.30	.60	<sup>4</sup> 8.00	Satinette.....do..	6.50	7.50	14.50
Cabbage.....Kg..	1.60	2.00	10.00	Calico.....do..	3.20	3.50	7.50
Lettuce.....Kg..	1.60	1.50	2.00	Mixed wool and cotton.....Meter..	50.00	75.00	120.00
Cucumbers, fresh.....10..	6.00	6.50	12.00	Crepe de Chine.....do..	45.00	90.00	120.00
Green onions.....Kg..	1.60	1.50	2.00				
Carrots.....Kg..	.40	.80	9.00				
Milk, fresh.....Liter	1.30	1.70	2.10				
<b>Cream:</b>							
Fresh.....do..	5.50	6.80	6.80				
Sour.....Kg..	8.00	8.00	10.00				

<sup>1</sup> As reported by the United States Embassy at Moscow. Kilogram (1,000 grams)=2.204 pounds; liter=1.057 liquid quarts; meter=39.37 inches.

<sup>2</sup> See preceding text.

<sup>3</sup> According to press dispatches from Moscow, the price of black bread (coarse whole-rye bread) and that of gray bread (whole-wheat or mixed whole-rye and whole-wheat bread) was increased 15 percent by the Government on Oct. 21, 1940 (New York Times, Oct. 22, 1940).

<sup>4</sup> Not available.

<sup>5</sup> The price of potatoes per kg. was reduced from 120 rubles to 0.90 rubles in Moscow, and to 0.95 rubles in Leningrad, on Oct. 21, 1940 (New York Times, Oct. 22, 1940, p. 18).

## Wholesale Prices

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### WHOLESALE PRICES, DECEMBER AND YEAR, 1940

DURING 1940 a general but moderate upturn was recorded in wholesale commodity prices. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of nearly 900 price series rose about 2 percent to 78.6 percent of the 1926 average, offsetting the decline of the previous year.

After falling to a 5-year low point of 75.0 in August 1939, prices of commodities in wholesale markets rose briskly following the outbreak of war in Europe and by January 1940 had risen nearly 6 percent. From their early war time speculative peaks, prices receded gradually until August when the movement was reversed and by the end of the year the index stood at 80.0, a gain of about 3.5 percent from the year's low—77.4—in August.

Textile products registered the largest advance of any group during the year, 5.9 percent. Hides and leather products followed closely with a gain of 5.4 percent. Building materials rose 4.8 percent, largely because of sharp increases in lumber and certain paint materials. Marked advances in prices for grains were mainly responsible for an increase of 3.7 percent in the farm products group index. Miscellaneous commodities were 3.3 percent higher in 1940 than in 1939 and housefurnishing goods were up 2.5 percent. Metals and metal products and chemicals and allied products advanced 1.5 percent and 1.3 percent, respectively. Fuel and lighting materials declined 1.9 percent, largely because of weakening prices for petroleum products.

Average prices for raw materials were 2.4 percent higher in 1940 than in 1939, semimanufactured commodities rose 2.7 percent, and manufactured commodities 1.5 percent. According to the index for "All commodities other than farm products," prices for nonagricultural commodities advanced 1.6 percent during the year. Industrial commodity prices rose 2.1 percent when measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods."

Important among the changes in subgroup indexes were increases of 16 percent for grains; nearly 14 percent for drugs and pharmaceuticals; over 11 percent for dairy products, paper and pulp, and rubber; 10 percent for lumber; and from 7 to 8 percent for hides and skins,

<sup>1</sup> More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Prices pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

woolen and worsted goods, and other textile products which include jute, hemp, and burlap. The most outstanding decreases were 8.5 percent for fats and oils, 5 percent for meats, and over 4 percent for livestock and poultry and petroleum products.

Table 1 shows index numbers of wholesale prices by groups and subgroups of commodities for 1939 and 1940 and the percentage changes between the 2 years.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, 1939 and 1940, and Percentage Changes From 1939 to 1940

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	Year 1940	Year 1939	Percentage change	Group and subgroup	Year 1940	Year 1939	Percentage change
<b>All commodities</b> .....	<b>78.6</b>	<b>77.1</b>	<b>+1.9</b>	<b>Metals and metal products—Continued.</b>			
<b>Farm products</b> .....	<b>67.7</b>	<b>65.3</b>	<b>+3.7</b>	Iron and steel.....	95.1	95.8	-0.7
Grains.....	68.0	58.6	+16.0	Motor vehicles.....	96.7	93.4	+3.5
Livestock and poultry.....	69.2	72.2	-4.2	Nonferrous metals.....	81.3	78.0	+4.2
Other farm products.....	66.1	62.6	+5.6	Plumbing and heating.....	80.4	79.2	+1.5
<b>Foods</b> .....	<b>71.3</b>	<b>70.4</b>	<b>+1.3</b>	<b>Building materials</b> .....	<b>94.8</b>	<b>90.5</b>	<b>+4.8</b>
Dairy products.....	77.6	69.5	+11.7	Brick and tile.....	90.5	91.4	-1.0
Cereal products.....	78.3	74.8	+4.7	Cement.....	90.8	91.3	-.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	63.1	62.0	+1.8	Lumber <sup>1</sup> .....	102.9	93.2	+10.4
Meats.....	73.3	77.2	-5.1	Paint and paint materials.....	85.7	82.8	+3.5
Other foods.....	63.5	64.1	-.9	Plumbing and heating.....	80.4	79.2	+1.5
<b>Hides and leather products</b> .....	<b>100.8</b>	<b>95.6</b>	<b>+5.4</b>	Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0
Shoes.....	107.6	102.6	+4.9	Other building materials.....	93.3	90.3	+3.3
Hides and skins.....	91.9	84.6	+8.6	<b>Chemicals and allied products</b> .....	<b>77.0</b>	<b>76.0</b>	<b>+1.3</b>
Leather.....	92.5	87.5	+5.7	Chemicals.....	85.1	84.7	+5
Other leather products.....	99.9	97.1	+2.9	Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	88.9	78.2	+13.7
<b>Textile products</b> .....	<b>73.8</b>	<b>69.7</b>	<b>+5.9</b>	Fertilizer materials.....	69.4	67.9	+2.2
Clothing.....	85.2	82.0	+3.9	Mixed fertilizers.....	73.8	73.0	+1.1
Cotton goods.....	71.4	67.2	+6.3	Oils and fats.....	44.3	48.4	-8.5
Hosiery and underwear.....	62.3	61.4	+1.5	<b>Housefurnishing goods</b> .....	<b>88.5</b>	<b>86.3</b>	<b>+2.5</b>
Rayon.....	29.5	28.8	+2.4	Furnishings.....	94.7	91.1	+4.0
Silk.....	46.8	46.1	+1.5	Furniture.....	81.8	81.3	+6
Woolen and worsted goods.....	85.7	79.8	+7.4	<b>Miscellaneous</b> .....	<b>77.3</b>	<b>74.8</b>	<b>+3.3</b>
Other textile products.....	74.5	69.2	+7.7	Automobile tires and tubes.....	57.8	59.5	-2.9
<b>Fuel and lighting materials</b> .....	<b>71.7</b>	<b>73.1</b>	<b>-1.9</b>	Cattle feed.....	87.8	83.3	+5.4
Anthracite.....	78.9	75.8	+4.1	Paper and pulp.....	91.7	82.4	+11.3
Bituminous coal.....	97.6	97.5	+1	Rubber, crude.....	41.5	37.2	+11.6
Coke.....	110.2	105.6	+4.4	Other miscellaneous.....	84.1	82.6	+1.8
Electricity.....	( <sup>1</sup> )	78.6	-----	<b>Raw materials</b> .....	<b>71.9</b>	<b>70.2</b>	<b>+2.4</b>
Gas.....	( <sup>1</sup> )	84.1	-----	<b>Semimanufactured articles</b> .....	<b>79.1</b>	<b>77.0</b>	<b>+2.7</b>
Petroleum and products.....	50.0	52.2	-4.2	<b>Manufactured products</b> .....	<b>81.6</b>	<b>80.4</b>	<b>+1.5</b>
<b>Metals and metal products</b> .....	<b>95.8</b>	<b>94.4</b>	<b>+1.5</b>	<b>All commodities other than farm products</b> .....	<b>80.8</b>	<b>79.5</b>	<b>+1.6</b>
Agricultural implements.....	92.5	93.4	-1.0	<b>All commodities other than farm products and foods</b> .....	<b>83.0</b>	<b>81.3</b>	<b>+2.1</b>
Farm machinery.....	93.7	94.6	-1.0				

<sup>1</sup> Data not yet available.

<sup>2</sup> New series.



Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for selected years are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities  
[1925=100]

Group and subgroup	1940	1939	1938	1937	1936	1933	1932	1929
<b>All commodities</b> .....	<b>78.6</b>	<b>77.1</b>	<b>78.6</b>	<b>86.3</b>	<b>80.8</b>	<b>65.9</b>	<b>64.8</b>	<b>95.3</b>
<b>Farm products</b> .....	<b>67.7</b>	<b>65.3</b>	<b>68.5</b>	<b>86.4</b>	<b>80.9</b>	<b>51.4</b>	<b>48.2</b>	<b>104.9</b>
Grains.....	68.0	58.6	60.6	98.3	88.3	53.1	39.4	97.4
Livestock and poultry.....	69.2	72.2	79.0	95.5	84.7	43.4	48.2	106.1
Other farm products.....	66.1	62.6	63.9	77.2	76.0	55.8	51.4	106.6
<b>Foods</b> .....	<b>71.3</b>	<b>70.4</b>	<b>73.6</b>	<b>85.5</b>	<b>82.1</b>	<b>60.5</b>	<b>61.0</b>	<b>99.9</b>
Dairy products.....	77.6	69.5	72.8	83.1	83.9	60.7	61.3	105.6
Cereal products.....	78.3	74.8	78.4	87.6	86.2	75.0	66.4	88.0
Fruits and vegetables.....	63.1	62.0	58.2	74.2	71.9	61.7	58.0	97.8
Meats.....	73.3	77.2	83.3	99.1	87.8	50.0	58.2	109.1
Other foods.....	63.5	64.1	67.5	75.6	75.9	61.1	60.7	93.9
<b>Hides and leather products</b> .....	<b>100.8</b>	<b>95.6</b>	<b>92.8</b>	<b>104.6</b>	<b>95.4</b>	<b>80.9</b>	<b>72.9</b>	<b>109.1</b>
Shoes.....	107.6	102.6	102.2	105.0	99.8	90.2	86.1	106.3
Hides and skins.....	91.9	84.6	73.6	113.5	94.6	67.1	42.1	112.7
Leather.....	92.5	87.5	83.7	96.8	85.6	71.4	65.1	113.2
Other leather products.....	99.9	97.1	98.5	102.6	95.5	81.1	90.1	106.4
<b>Textile products</b> .....	<b>73.8</b>	<b>69.7</b>	<b>66.7</b>	<b>76.3</b>	<b>71.5</b>	<b>64.8</b>	<b>54.9</b>	<b>90.4</b>
Clothing.....	85.2	82.0	82.9	87.9	81.1	72.2	63.0	90.0
Cotton goods.....	71.4	67.2	65.4	84.3	80.3	71.2	54.0	98.8
Hosiery and underwear.....	62.3	61.4	60.3	65.1	61.2	58.9	51.6	88.5
Rayon.....	29.5	28.8	28.9	33.3	31.8	33.0	35.4	68.4
Silk.....	46.8	46.1	29.6	32.7	31.5	29.8	29.5	82.7
Woolen and worsted goods.....	85.7	79.8	77.4	91.1	82.9	69.3	57.7	88.3
Other textile products.....	74.5	69.2	65.5	68.4	67.0	72.5	67.9	93.1
<b>Fuel and lighting materials</b> .....	<b>71.7</b>	<b>73.1</b>	<b>76.5</b>	<b>77.6</b>	<b>76.2</b>	<b>66.3</b>	<b>70.3</b>	<b>83.0</b>
Anthracite.....	78.9	75.8	78.0	77.8	80.5	82.2	88.4	90.1
Bituminous coal.....	97.6	97.5	99.0	98.6	97.4	82.8	82.0	91.3
Coke.....	110.2	105.6	104.8	103.1	94.7	77.9	77.7	84.6
Electricity.....	(1)	78.6	84.9	80.4	83.4	94.3	104.7	94.5
Gas.....	(1)	84.1	86.1	82.4	85.2	97.5	101.3	93.1
Petroleum and products.....	50.0	52.2	55.0	60.5	57.3	41.0	45.4	71.3
<b>Metals and metal products</b> .....	<b>95.8</b>	<b>94.4</b>	<b>95.7</b>	<b>95.7</b>	<b>87.0</b>	<b>79.8</b>	<b>80.2</b>	<b>100.5</b>
Agricultural implements.....	92.5	93.4	95.5	94.0	94.2	83.5	84.9	98.7
Farm machinery.....	93.7	94.6	96.9	95.6	92.3	87.7	89.8	98.0
Iron and steel.....	95.1	95.8	98.6	98.2	87.6	78.6	79.4	94.9
Motor vehicles.....	96.7	93.4	95.4	89.3	83.3	83.2	87.1	100.0
Nonferrous metals.....	81.3	78.0	72.8	89.6	71.6	59.6	49.8	106.1
Plumbing and heating.....	80.4	79.2	78.5	78.8	75.0	67.1	66.8	95.0
<b>Building materials</b> .....	<b>94.8</b>	<b>90.5</b>	<b>90.3</b>	<b>95.2</b>	<b>86.7</b>	<b>77.0</b>	<b>71.4</b>	<b>95.4</b>
Brick and tile.....	90.5	91.4	91.0	93.5	88.7	79.2	77.3	94.3
Cement.....	90.8	91.3	90.3	89.0	92.2	88.1	74.3	89.0
Lumber <sup>2</sup> .....	102.9	93.2	87.4	99.7	87.0	70.7	58.5	93.8
Paint and paint materials.....	85.7	82.8	81.3	83.4	80.1	73.3	71.1	94.9
Plumbing and heating.....	80.4	79.2	78.5	78.8	75.0	67.1	66.8	95.0
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	111.0	113.2	95.0	83.1	80.9	98.1
Other building materials.....	93.3	90.3	92.7	99.1	90.2	82.7	79.5	97.7
<b>Chemicals and allied products</b> .....	<b>77.0</b>	<b>76.0</b>	<b>77.0</b>	<b>82.6</b>	<b>78.7</b>	<b>72.1</b>	<b>73.9</b>	<b>94.0</b>
Chemicals.....	85.1	84.7	86.4	88.2	87.9	86.8	88.8	99.7
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	88.9	78.2	79.0	86.6	80.1	54.6	55.0	66.8
Fertilizer materials.....	69.4	67.9	67.0	69.0	63.3	62.9	63.7	95.6
Mixed fertilizers.....	73.8	73.0	72.6	73.8	68.5	64.0	68.4	95.2
Oils and fats.....	44.3	48.4	49.6	76.8	63.2	39.4	40.0	89.0
<b>Housefurnishing goods</b> .....	<b>88.5</b>	<b>86.3</b>	<b>86.8</b>	<b>89.7</b>	<b>81.7</b>	<b>75.8</b>	<b>75.1</b>	<b>94.3</b>
Furnishings.....	94.7	91.1	90.8	93.4	85.3	76.6	75.4	93.6
Furniture.....	81.8	81.3	82.8	85.9	78.0	75.1	75.0	95.0
<b>Miscellaneous</b> .....	<b>77.3</b>	<b>74.8</b>	<b>73.3</b>	<b>77.8</b>	<b>70.5</b>	<b>62.5</b>	<b>64.4</b>	<b>82.6</b>
Automobile tires and tubes.....	57.8	59.5	57.7	55.8	47.2	42.1	41.1	54.5
Cattle feed.....	87.8	83.3	76.9	110.5	94.4	57.9	46.0	121.6
Paper and pulp.....	91.7	82.4	85.0	91.7	80.7	76.6	75.5	88.9
Rubber, crude.....	41.5	37.2	30.5	40.5	34.2	12.2	7.3	42.3
Other miscellaneous.....	84.1	82.6	81.5	94.7	81.1	76.2	83.7	98.4
<b>Raw materials</b> .....	<b>71.9</b>	<b>70.2</b>	<b>72.0</b>	<b>84.8</b>	<b>79.9</b>	<b>58.5</b>	<b>55.1</b>	<b>97.5</b>
<b>Semimanufactured articles</b> .....	<b>79.1</b>	<b>77.0</b>	<b>75.4</b>	<b>85.3</b>	<b>75.9</b>	<b>65.4</b>	<b>59.3</b>	<b>93.9</b>
<b>Finished products</b> .....	<b>81.6</b>	<b>80.4</b>	<b>82.2</b>	<b>87.2</b>	<b>82.0</b>	<b>70.5</b>	<b>70.3</b>	<b>94.5</b>
<b>All commodities other than farm products</b> .....	<b>80.8</b>	<b>79.5</b>	<b>80.6</b>	<b>86.2</b>	<b>80.7</b>	<b>69.0</b>	<b>68.3</b>	<b>93.3</b>
<b>All commodities other than farm products and foods</b> .....	<b>83.0</b>	<b>81.3</b>	<b>81.7</b>	<b>85.3</b>	<b>79.6</b>	<b>71.2</b>	<b>70.2</b>	<b>91.6</b>

<sup>1</sup> Not yet available.

<sup>2</sup> Index numbers 1935 to date on new series.

Continued advances in wholesale prices of agricultural commodities and comparatively steady prices for industrial commodities characterized wholesale markets during December. Advances of over 2 percent in farm product prices and nearly 1.5 percent for foods, particularly livestock and dairy products, contributed largely to an advance of 0.5 percent and brought the all-commodity index to 80 percent of the 1926 average, the highest level since January 1938. The general level in December is 1 percent above the corresponding month of last year.

In addition to the increases in the farm products and foods groups in December, textile products and building materials rose 0.4 percent and chemicals and allied products and housefurnishing goods were 0.3 percent above the November level. Fuel and lighting materials and miscellaneous commodities declined 0.3 percent, and hides and leather products and metals and metal products remained unchanged.

Five of the 10 major commodity group indexes were above their year-ago levels. Building materials were 6.8 percent higher; farm products, over 3 percent; foods, 2.2 percent; metals and metal products, 1.7 percent; and housefurnishing goods, 0.5 percent. Textile product prices were 4 percent below a year ago and hides and leather products and fuel and lighting materials were about 1.5 percent lower.

Higher prices for agricultural commodities were mainly responsible for an advance of nearly 1.5 percent in the raw materials group index. Average prices for manufactured commodities rose 0.2 percent during December and semimanufactured commodities remained unchanged at the November level. Prices for nonagricultural commodities advanced only 0.2 percent in December according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products." The index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods," which reflects the movements in prices of industrial commodities remained unchanged at 84.1 percent of the 1926 average.

Percentage comparisons of the December 1940 level of wholesale prices with December 1939, November 1940, and the low point of 1939 and 1940 (August) with corresponding index numbers are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices and the Percentage Changes by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities for Specified Periods

[1926=100]

Groups and subgroups	December 1940	November 1940	Percentage change	December 1939	Percentage change to December 1940	August 1939	Percentage change to December 1940	August 1940	Percentage change to December 1940
All commodities	80.0	79.6	+0.5	79.2	+1.0	75.0	+6.7	77.4	+3.4
Farm products	69.7	68.2	+2.2	67.6	+3.1	61.0	+14.3	65.6	+6.3
Grains	67.0	67.7	-1.0	71.6	-6.4	51.5	+30.1	59.3	+13.0
Livestock and poultry	72.7	69.9	+4.0	63.8	+13.9	66.0	+10.2	71.5	+1.7
Other farm products	68.1	66.8	+1.9	68.4	-4	60.1	+13.3	63.3	+7.6
Foods	73.5	72.5	+1.4	71.9	+2.2	67.2	+9.4	70.1	+4.9
Dairy products	84.2	82.3	+2.3	81.3	+3.6	67.9	+24.0	74.3	+13.3
Cereal products	74.3	74.8	-7	80.5	-7.7	71.9	+3.3	75.1	-1.1
Fruits and vegetables	61.2	60.4	+1.3	63.0	-2.9	58.5	+4.6	63.2	-3.2
Meats	77.0	76.2	+1.0	69.1	+11.4	73.7	+4.5	76.1	+1.2
Other foods	67.0	65.4	+2.4	66.5	+8	60.3	+11.1	60.4	+10.9
Hides and leather products	102.3	102.3	0	103.7	-1.4	92.7	+10.4	96.9	+5.6
Shoes	107.2	107.1	+1	107.5	-3	100.8	+6.3	107.0	+2
Hides and skins	99.3	101.2	-1.9	105.2	-5.6	77.2	+28.6	77.1	+28.8
Leather	94.1	93.2	+1.0	95.2	-1.2	84.0	+12.0	88.3	+6.6
Other leather products	99.7	99.7	0	100.0	-3	97.1	+2.7	99.7	0
Textile products	74.8	74.5	+4	78.0	-4.1	67.8	+10.3	72.3	+3.5
Clothing	85.5	85.7	-2	84.2	+1.5	81.5	+4.9	85.6	-1
Cotton goods	74.9	73.6	+1.8	75.2	-4	65.5	+14.4	68.6	+9.2
Hosiery and underwear	60.7	61.5	-1.3	66.0	-8.0	61.5	-1.3	61.5	-1.3
Rayon	29.5	29.5	0	29.5	0	28.5	+3.5	29.5	0
Silk	42.5	42.8	-7	66.0	-35.6	44.3	-4.1	43.0	-1.2
Woolen and worsted goods	89.0	88.8	+2	90.3	-1.4	75.5	+17.9	83.7	+6.3
Other textile products	74.6	73.7	+1.2	84.2	-11.4	73.7	+17.1	71.9	+3.8
Fuel and lighting materials	71.7	71.9	-3	72.8	-1.5	72.6	-1.2	71.1	+8
Anthracite	80.9	80.7	+2	76.1	+6.3	72.1	+12.2	79.0	+2.4
Bituminous coal	100.4	100.4	0	97.8	+2.7	96.0	+4.6	96.2	+4.4
Coke	113.6	112.6	+9	109.9	+3.4	104.2	+9.0	109.6	+3.6
Electricity	(1)	73.3		77.7		75.8		72.4	
Gas	(1)	80.5		80.4		86.7		84.5	
Petroleum and products	49.5	49.3	+4	52.5	-5.7	51.7	-4.3	49.2	+6
Metals and metal products	97.6	97.6	0	96.0	+1.7	93.2	+4.7	94.9	+2.8
Agricultural implements	92.6	92.6	0	93.3	-8	93.5	-1.0	92.3	+3
Farm machinery	93.9	93.8	+1	94.6	-7	94.7	-8	93.5	+4
Iron and steel	95.4	95.3	+1	96.1	-7	95.1	+3	94.8	+6
Motor vehicles	100.3	100.3	0	94.7	+5.9	92.5	+8.4	95.6	+4.9
Nonferrous metals	83.4	83.9	-6	84.6	-1.4	74.6	+11.8	79.1	+5.4
Plumbing and heating	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5	79.3	+1.5	80.5	0
Building materials	99.3	98.9	+4	93.0	+6.8	89.6	+10.8	93.3	+6.4
Brick and tile	91.1	90.2	+1.0	91.6	-5	90.5	+7	90.1	+1.1
Cement	90.9	90.8	+1	91.3	-4	91.3	-4	90.6	+3
Lumber	118.8	117.5	+1.1	97.8	+21.5	91.8	+29.4	98.4	+20.7
Paint and paint materials	85.4	85.7	-4	85.5	-1	82.1	+4.0	84.2	+1.4
Plumbing and heating	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5	79.3	+1.5	80.5	0
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	94.5	94.2	+3	92.7	+1.9	89.5	+5.6	93.4	+1.2
Chemicals and allied products	77.7	77.5	+3	77.7	0	74.2	+4.7	76.7	+1.3
Chemicals	85.4	85.1	+4	85.3	+1	83.8	+1.9	84.8	+7
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	96.2	95.9	+3	80.3	+19.8	77.1	+24.8	96.2	0
Fertilizer materials	70.0	69.9	+1	70.9	-1.3	65.5	+6.9	68.0	+2.9
Mixed fertilizer	74.3	74.2	+1	73.9	+5	73.1	+1.6	74.2	+1
Oils and fats	42.4	42.3	+2	53.1	-20.2	40.6	+4.4	39.1	+8.4
Housefurnishing goods	88.9	88.6	+3	88.5	+5	85.6	+3.9	88.5	+5
Furnishings	95.1	95.0	+1	94.4	+7	90.0	+5.7	94.8	+3
Furniture	82.2	81.8	+5	82.4	-2	81.1	+1.4	81.8	+5
Miscellaneous	77.3	77.5	-3	77.4	-1	73.3	+5.5	76.7	+8
Automobile tires and tubes	58.3	58.6	-5	55.6	+4.9	60.5	-3.6	58.8	-9
Cattle feed	90.1	92.1	-2.2	91.7	-1.7	68.4	+31.7	74.5	+20.9
Paper and pulp	93.1	93.1	0	89.0	+4.6	80.0	+16.4	93.5	-4
Rubber, crude	42.7	42.9	-5	42.4	+7	34.9	+22.3	41.0	+4.1
Other miscellaneous	82.8	82.8	0	86.6	-4.4	81.3	+1.8	82.8	0
Raw materials	73.6	72.6	+1.4	73.3	+4	66.5	+10.7	69.8	+5.4
Semimanufactured articles	80.7	80.7	0	82.0	-1.6	74.5	+8.3	77.0	+4.8
Manufactured products	82.8	82.6	+2	81.7	+1.3	79.1	+4.7	81.0	+2.2
All commodities other than farm products	82.1	81.9	+2	81.6	+6	77.9	+5.4	79.9	+2.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	84.1	84.1	0	83.9	+2	80.1	+5.0	82.0	+2.6

1 Data not yet available.

Revised.

New series.



An advance of 4 percent in prices of livestock, led by sharp increases in prices for hogs, cows, steers, wethers, and live poultry, contributed largely to the rise of over 2 percent in the farm products group index. Quotations were higher also for calves, ewes, and lambs, and for barley and oats. Prices for most fruits and vegetables advanced, as did also prices for eggs, cotton, tobacco, hay, and seeds. The grain market weakened due to lower prices for corn, rye, and wheat. Lower prices were also reported for citrus fruits, hops, and milk in the Chicago market.

Wholesale prices of foods were generally higher during the month. Marked advances were reported in prices for butter, cheese, evaporated milk, most meats, vegetable oils, fish, molasses, sugar, fresh fruits and vegetables, oatmeal, and rice. Prices were lower for flour, corn meal, lamb, lard, and tallow.

In the hides and leather products group, higher prices for goat and sheep skins and leather offset lower prices for cow and steer hides and calf and kip skins, with the result that the group index remained unchanged at 102.3 percent of the 1926 level.

Further advances in prices for industrial cotton goods such as drills, ducks, osnaburg, print cloth, tire fabrics, and yarns, for burlap, jute, and cordage, and for cotton hosiery and underwear caused the textile products group index to rise 0.4 percent. The price of manila hemp dropped sharply. Quotations were lower also for raw silk, silk yarns, and hosiery.

Higher prices were reported for fuels such as anthracite, coke, fuel oils, kerosene, and crude petroleum. Gasoline prices weakened.

Although the index for the metals and metal products group remained unchanged at the November level, 97.6 percent of the 1926 average, there was considerable activity in iron and steel and non-ferrous metal markets. Prices were higher for pig iron and scrap steel, also for certain farm machinery items and manufactured products of copper and brass. Substantial declines were reported in prices for aluminum, lead, quicksilver, and tin.

An advance of 0.4 percent in average prices for building materials brought the index to the highest point since December 1926. Prices were sharply higher for most lumber items, concrete blocks, paint materials such as butyl and ethyl acetate, linseed oil, and shellac. Minor advances occurred in prices for common brick, cement, gravel, sand, and lime. Prices were lower for yellow pine lath, timbers, flooring, No. 2 boards, and for red gum and cedar siding. Red lead, litharge, rosin, and turpentine also declined.

The movement in prices of chemicals and allied products was mixed. Prices were higher for most fatty acids, acetone, alcohol, arsenic, cream of tartar, lead arsenate, and for fertilizer materials including ground

bones, cottonseed meal, and fish scrap. Fats and oils, such as copra, inedible tallow, and sulfur and soybean oils advanced. Prices were lower for phenol, tankage, coconut oil, and palm oil.

Higher prices for mattresses, stoves, and office desks accounted for the advance of 0.3 percent in the housefurnishing goods group index.

In the miscellaneous group of commodities, prices for soap and cleansers, linseed meal, and matches advanced. Quotations were lower for most cattle feed items, particularly bran and middlings, and for boxboard, cylinder oils, and paraffin wax.

### Index Numbers by Groups of Commodities

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1940, inclusive, and by months from December 1939 to December 1940, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926 = 100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	Housefurnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940.....	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
By months:											
1939:											
December.....	67.6	71.9	103.7	78.0	72.8	96.0	93.0	77.7	88.5	77.4	79.2
1940:											
January.....	69.1	71.7	103.6	77.9	72.7	95.8	93.4	77.7	87.9	77.7	79.4
February.....	68.7	71.1	102.4	75.4	72.4	95.3	93.2	77.5	88.0	77.3	78.7
March.....	67.9	70.2	101.8	74.0	72.2	95.5	93.3	77.0	88.0	76.9	78.4
April.....	69.4	71.6	101.8	72.9	71.8	94.5	92.5	76.8	88.4	77.7	78.6
May.....	67.9	71.4	101.3	72.9	71.7	94.5	92.5	76.7	88.5	77.7	78.4
June.....	66.2	70.3	99.2	72.6	71.4	94.7	92.4	76.1	88.5	77.3	77.5
July.....	66.5	70.3	99.0	72.4	71.1	95.1	<sup>1</sup> 92.5	77.0	88.5	77.7	77.7
August.....	65.6	70.1	96.9	72.3	71.1	94.9	<sup>1</sup> 93.3	76.7	88.5	76.7	77.4
September.....	66.2	71.5	98.3	72.5	71.0	95.4	<sup>1</sup> 95.6	76.8	88.5	76.5	78.0
October.....	66.4	71.1	100.4	73.6	71.6	97.3	97.8	76.9	88.6	76.9	78.7
November.....	68.2	72.5	102.3	74.5	71.9	97.6	98.9	77.5	88.6	77.5	79.6
December.....	69.7	73.5	102.3	74.8	71.7	97.6	99.3	77.7	88.9	77.3	80.0

<sup>1</sup> Revised.

The trend in prices of raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Con.					
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1940—Con.					
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	February.....	72.7	79.9	81.4	80.8	83.2
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	March.....	72.0	79.7	81.1	80.5	82.9
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	April.....	73.0	78.2	81.2	80.5	82.5
1936.....	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May.....	72.0	78.3	81.3	80.5	82.5
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	June.....	70.7	77.9	80.5	79.8	82.2
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	July.....	70.7	77.8	80.9	80.0	82.3
1939.....	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	August.....	69.8	77.0	81.0	79.9	82.0
1940.....	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	September.....	70.5	77.6	81.5	80.4	82.3
By months:						October.....	71.4	79.4	82.1	81.3	83.5
1939:						November.....	72.6	80.7	82.6	81.9	84.1
December.....	73.3	82.0	81.7	81.6	83.9	December.....	73.6	80.7	82.8	82.1	84.1
1940:											
January.....	73.8	81.7	81.7	81.5	83.9						

NEW PRICE INDEX OF THE LONDON ECONOMIST<sup>1</sup>

A SENSITIVE price index has been initiated by the London Economist to show changes in the state of the markets for 10 primary products. The commodities to be included were selected because of their world-wide use and, in peace times, their comparative freedom from controls. As the index was not intended to measure changes in the value of all primary products, a limited selection of commodities could be made, and there was no problem of allocating differential weights. With the publication of the new series, the earlier index of prices of primary products, issued in the Economist since late in 1931, was discontinued.

The new sensitive daily index issued by the Economist consists of the following 10 items:

## (a) Commodities subject to discontinuous production:

Wheat.—The official settlement price quoted on the Liverpool exchange for the nearest future, i. e. between 1 and 3 months.

Maize.—The nearest future quotation on the Liverpool exchange.

Sugar.—The spot price for 96° raw sugar.

Cocoa.—The nearest future quotation on the Amsterdam exchange.

Cotton.—The spot price for American middling on the Liverpool exchange.

## (b) Commodities subject to continuous production:

Nonferrous metals, i. e. copper, tin, lead and spelter.—The official closing spot quotations on the London Metal Exchange.

Rubber.—The spot quotation for standard smoked sheet on the London exchange.

<sup>1</sup> The Economist (London), October 26, 1940.

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The index is an unweighted geometric average based on the average wholesale prices as of 1935. Calculations are made for the last day of each month, from January 1913 to March 1938, and daily thereafter.

In addition to the index of 10 commodities, two subsidiary series are calculated by grouping together those commodities which are produced continuously and those which are seasonal. The coverage of the first index includes the four nonferrous metals and rubber, and the second includes wheat, maize, sugar, cocoa, and cotton. These index numbers are also unweighted, and are calculated back to January 1913.

Although the majority of primary products are now Government controlled, owing to the war, and for that reason the new index does not at present reflect short-time market changes, it does show the trends in earlier years. The Economist states that "it clearly shows the persistent downward trend in the average prices of these 10 important commodities, which has been a powerful contribution to the improvement in our standard of living." Even though the value of the new price series is temporarily reduced by the imposition of price control in Great Britain, the sponsors state "they are offered \* \* \* as the first installment of a new scheme of indices designed to facilitate the study of changing price ratios and of the relationship between prices and production." Figures will be published each week in the future.

The sensitive price indexes of 10 commodities are shown in the table following, by months, for the years 1913, 1920, and 1936-40, inclusive.

*Economist Sensitive Price Index of 10 Commodities*

[1935=100]

End of month	1913	1920	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Year .....	150.2	290.5	114.7	134.1	101.1	109.4	( <sup>1</sup> )
January .....	158.7	346.3	105.0	141.3	107.9	102.7	135.0
February .....	160.2	369.4	106.0	156.3	108.8	101.6	137.4
March .....	156.6	344.0	108.7	175.1	101.4	100.9	134.4
April .....	155.7	346.3	108.6	142.3	93.5	103.0	135.0
May .....	151.8	323.4	106.1	143.2	88.0	105.0	133.6
June .....	146.1	297.8	107.0	139.5	99.2	104.0	133.9
July .....	146.3	297.0	113.4	139.6	102.6	102.0	134.9
August .....	149.4	287.1	114.4	134.2	99.3	106.4	132.0
September .....	149.2	276.1	119.4	124.8	103.1		( <sup>1</sup> )
October .....	148.5	258.5	124.1	116.1	102.5	118.6	( <sup>1</sup> )
November .....	142.0	210.0	127.6	108.9	102.8	123.8	( <sup>1</sup> )
December .....	139.7	192.3	141.2	103.7	105.6	142.5	( <sup>1</sup> )

<sup>1</sup> Not yet available.

## *Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls*

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### SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR DECEMBER 1940

#### *Total Nonagricultural Employment*

CIVIL nonagricultural employment increased by approximately 540,000 workers in December 1940, bringing the total to more than 37,100,000 persons. The December increase was larger than any reported in the past 11 years and more persons were engaged in civil nonagricultural occupations in December than at any time since October 1929. Wholesale and retail trade establishments, in which 430,000 workers were added, accounted for most of the employment gain; a substantial portion of this gain was due to the hiring of temporary workers to handle the Christmas trade. Manufacturing industries continued to expand under the spur of defense expenditures and showed a contraseasonal gain of nearly 120,000. Federal, State, and local government services, exclusive of the armed forces, added more than 45,000 persons to pay rolls in December; most of this rise was due to increased activity at navy yards and Government arsenals and to the hiring of temporary employees by the Post Office Department for the Christmas rush. The finance, service, and miscellaneous group of industries added approximately 11,000 workers in December. Transportation, public utilities, and mining reported seasonal decreases in employment in December. Construction firms, however, showed a less than seasonal decrease of 27,000 workers.

Total civil nonagricultural employment in December 1940 was 1,500,000 above the December 1939 level. Manufacturing industries added 640,000 workers during the year and 450,000 found jobs in private and public construction work. Of all the industries surveyed, the only major group to report an employment decrease (15,000) over the year interval was mining.

These figures do not include emergency employment which increased 155,000 as a result of the following changes: Increases of 63,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration, 65,000 on the out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration, 62,000 in the military service, and a decrease of 35,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

*Industrial and Business Employment*

Of the 157 manufacturing industries surveyed, 102 showed more wage earners at work in December than in November and 128 showed larger pay rolls, while 8 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed reported gains in employment and 13, gains in pay rolls.

The contraseasonal gain of 1.3 percent (120,000 workers) in factory employment was coupled with an increase in weekly pay rolls of 5.2 percent or more than \$11,300,000. The employment gain was in contrast to a seasonally expected decline of 0.9 percent or 82,000 workers and the pay-roll expansion was about 14 times as large as the customary seasonal increase of 0.4 percent or \$880,000. In only 1 year (1919) has a more pronounced pay-roll increase been reported for December, and in only 2 years (1919 and 1924) has a larger employment gain been shown.

The December 1940 employment index for all manufacturing industries combined stood at 116.2 percent of the 1923-25 average, the highest point since the series began (January 1919) and 7.8 percent above the level of a year ago. The corresponding pay-roll index (122.4) exceeded all levels since June 1920 and showed an increase of 16.1 percent over December of last year. The 12-month average index of employment in 1940 was 107.5 compared with 99.9 in 1939, and the corresponding pay-roll indexes were 105.4 and 92.2.

For the durable-goods group of industries, the employment and pay-roll indexes in December 1940 were 117.6 and 131.6, the gains since last year being 14.4 and 24.4 percent, respectively. The average 1940 indexes for this group were 104.3 in employment and 107.8 in pay rolls as against 1939 average indexes of 90.2 and 86.2.

The December 1940 employment and pay-roll indexes for the non-durable-goods group were 114.8 and 112.1, the gains since a year ago being 2.0 and 6.8 percent, respectively. The average indexes for the year 1940 were 110.6 and 102.7, while for 1939 they were 109.2 and 98.9.

The durable-goods group as a whole showed employment and pay-roll gains between November and December 1940 of 1.8 percent and 5.2 percent, respectively, while the nondurable-goods group showed somewhat smaller increases (0.8 percent and 5.2 percent). As in the preceding month, most of the employment gains in the individual industries were either larger than seasonal or contraseasonal, and most of the decreases were smaller than seasonal. Among the many industries showing employment gains due in part to defense orders



were the following: Foundries and machine shops (15,900), electrical machinery (11,100), cotton goods (10,600), shipbuilding (9,300), steel (8,900), shoes (8,300), aircraft (7,900), men's clothing (6,200), woolen and worsted goods (3,900), brass, bronze, and copper products (3,700), engines (3,400), and machine tools (2,900). The percentage increases in other industries recently added to the monthly report and engaged in defense work were as follows: Fire extinguishers, 10.3 percent; machine tool accessories, 6.4 percent; ammunition, 5.8 percent; screw-machine products, 4.9 percent; instruments and apparatus, 4.7 percent; firearms, 4.4 percent; optical goods, 4.1 percent; and abrasives, 1.9 percent. The largest employment decline was in the canning industry, which showed a seasonal recession of 16,600. Sawmills reported 6,700 fewer workers and automobile plants a decline of less than 1,000.

Employment in retail stores increased more than seasonally by 11.6 percent, and corresponding pay rolls increased 10.7 percent, the latter gain being the largest December pay-roll increase recorded in the 12 years of the Bureau's survey. Both employment and pay rolls in retail trade as a whole were at the highest levels since December 1929, while for the general merchandising group, they were at the highest points recorded in the Bureau's survey. Department stores took on 35.8 percent more employees to handle the holiday trade; variety stores, 50.9 percent; jewelry stores, 23.7 percent; men's and boys' apparel stores, 22.8 percent; family clothing stores, 16.9 percent; and women's apparel stores, 10.8 percent.

In wholesale trade the employment gain of 1 percent between November and December was larger than the December increase reported in any of the preceding 11 years with the exception of 1936. This gain was reflected in all important wholesale lines with the exception of dry goods and apparel and farm products which showed declines of 0.4 and 1.6 percent, respectively. Wholesalers dealing in general merchandise increased their forces by 8.7 percent; farm supplies, 5.8 percent; electrical supplies and hardware, 2.5 percent each; leather goods and tobacco, 1.6 percent each; agents and brokers, 7.5 percent; and assemblers and country buyers, 7.3 percent.

In anthracite mines employment increased seasonally by 0.9 percent and pay rolls rose 13.4 percent. While employment in anthracite mining remained virtually unchanged over the year interval, the December pay-roll level was 60 percent above that of December 1939, indicating substantially increased production. In bituminous-coal mines, employment increased less than seasonally by 0.2 percent, while

pay rolls showed a substantial gain of 8.1 percent. Since December 1939, employment in this field decreased by 2.8 percent and pay rolls increased 8.4 percent. Employment in metal mines decreased seasonally by 0.4 percent since November, quarries showed a smaller-than-seasonal employment loss of 3.5 percent, and crude oil producers a decline of 0.6 percent.

Private building construction employment decreased much less than seasonally (0.5 percent) from November to December, the average November-December drop of the past 8 years being 11.3 percent. Five of the nine geographic divisions showed increased employment, namely the West South Central States (3.7 percent), the South Atlantic States (3.0 percent), the West North Central States (2.3 percent), the East South Central States (1.8 percent), and the Pacific States (0.9 percent). All of the geographic divisions, however, showed increases in weekly pay rolls. General contractors reported 0.4 percent fewer workers while special trades contractors reported a net employment decrease of 1.6 percent. Of the fifteen special building trades surveyed, increases were reported for structural steel erection (18.6 percent), plastering (4.7 percent), elevator installation (3.8 percent), roofing and sheet metal work (3.1 percent), ornamental metal work (0.8 percent), and electrical contracting (0.2 percent). Employment decreases were reported for painting and decorating (14.5 percent), building insulation (7.0 percent), carpentering (3.9 percent), plumbing and heating (2.8 percent), masonry (2.5 percent), excavating (1.1 percent), tile and terrazzo contracting (0.9 percent), and wood flooring (0.1 percent). Glazing contractors showed no change in employment over the month interval. The level of employment in private building construction as a whole in December 1940 was 30.5 percent higher and weekly pay rolls 38.3 percent higher, than in December 1939.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for class I steam railroads showed an employment decline of 1.8 percent between November and December, the total number employed in December being 1,024,806. Corresponding pay-roll figures for December were not available when this report was prepared. For November they were \$165,481,736, a decrease of \$11,107,452 since October.

*Hours and earnings.*—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 39.8 in December, an increase of 3.1 percent from November. The corresponding average hourly earnings were 68.3 cents, an increase of 0.8 percent from the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory workers were \$27.89, an increase of 3.7 percent since November. Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed, 14 reported increases in average weekly earnings. Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 11 showed gains in average hours worked per week and 10 reported increases in average hourly earnings.

Wage-rate increases were reported by 211 of the 33,789 manufacturing establishments which supplied employment information in December. These increases averaged 6.3 percent and affected 74,102 of the 6,468,688 wage earners covered. Among the industries in which substantial numbers of workers received pay raises were saw-mills (13,342), electrical machinery (8,962), steel (7,374), foundries (7,255), chemicals (4,019), paper and pulp (2,532), and smelting and refining (2,547). Out of a total sample of 93,662 nonmanufacturing establishments (excluding building-construction firms) employing 3,310,561 employees in December, 43 establishments reported wage increases affecting 4,045 workers, more than half of whom were metal miners. These increases averaged 8.5 percent. As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for December 1940 are given in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, for water transportation, and for class I railroads. Percentage changes over the month and year intervals are also given.



TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, December 1940 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, December 1940	Percentage change from—		Index, December 1940	Percentage change from—		Average in December 1940	Percentage change from—	
		November 1940	December 1939		November 1940	December 1939		November 1940	December 1939
All manufacturing industries combined <sup>1</sup>	(1923-25 = 100) 116.2	+1.3	+7.8	(1923-25 = 100) 122.4	+5.2	+16.1	\$27.89	+3.7	+7.7
Class I steam railroads <sup>2</sup>	57.4	-1.8	+1.6	(3)	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Coal mining:	(1929 = 100)			(1929 = 100)					
Anthracite	50.8	+9	-3	42.7	+13.4	+60.3	27.60	+12.4	+60.7
Bituminous <sup>4</sup>	90.0	+2	-2.8	91.3	+8.1	+8.4	27.19	+7.9	+11.5
Metalliferous mining	72.2	-4	+7.3	73.3	+4.9	+12.8	31.71	+5.4	+5.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	45.5	-3.5	+3.4	42.8	+1.2	+9.4	23.74	+4.9	+5.8
Crude-petroleum production	60.9	-6	-4.5	55.8	-1.8	-5.8	33.70	-1.2	-1.3
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph <sup>5</sup>	79.6	+4	+5.1	104.9	+1.6	+7.7	\$32.40	+1.2	+2.5
Electric light and power <sup>5</sup>	91.3	-5	+1.3	106.4	-5	+3.9	\$35.54	+(7)	+2.5
Street railways and busses <sup>5</sup>	68.4	-3	-9	73.2	+4.2	+4.9	\$34.92	+4.6	+5.7
Trade:									
Wholesale <sup>6</sup>	92.7	+1.0	+6	84.0	+4.0	+6.1	\$31.31	+2.9	+5.5
Retail <sup>6</sup>	107.5	+11.6	+3.2	96.4	+10.7	+5.0	\$20.24	-8	+1.8
Hotels (year-round) <sup>4 10</sup>	92.7	+3	+2.1	84.4	+1.0	+4.1	\$15.85	+6	+2.0
Laundries <sup>4</sup>	100.2	+6	+4.9	89.0	+2.0	+6.4	18.40	+1.5	+1.4
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>4</sup>	103.2	-2.6	+5.9	75.8	-2.5	+8.5	20.14	+(7)	+2.5
Brokerage	(3)	-6	-12.0	(3)	+2.5	-11.4	\$38.28	+3.1	+7
Insurance	(3)	+1	+1.6	(3)	+1.0	+2.8	\$36.75	+9	+1.2
Building construction	(3)	-1.9	+28.7	(3)	+5.6	+34.4	32.63	+7.6	+4.3
Water transportation <sup>11</sup>	76.2	+4	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)

<sup>1</sup> Revised indexes—Adjusted to preliminary 1939 Census of Manufactures. See also table 5 (p. 1591) in the December 1940 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

<sup>3</sup> Not available.

<sup>4</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, *Employment and Pay Rolls*.

<sup>5</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.

<sup>6</sup> Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the pamphlet dated earlier than January 1938, or in the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

<sup>7</sup> Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

<sup>8</sup> Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

<sup>9</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet or February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.

<sup>10</sup> Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

<sup>11</sup> Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission.

### Public Employment

Approximately 122,000 additional men were given jobs on construction projects financed from appropriations to regular Federal agencies in the month ending December 15. Efforts to rush completion of army camps resulted in a gain of 151,000 on building-construction

projects. The number of workers engaged in building naval vessels was increased by 6,000 during the month. Employment decreases on nondefense construction partially offset the gains on building and naval-vessel construction, leaving a net gain of 122,000 over November. Pay-roll disbursements of \$82,887,000 to the 753,000 men employed on all types of projects exceeded November payments by \$17,748,000.

Seasonal curtailment of employment to the extent of about 3,000 men occurred on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority. Wage payments of \$4,887,000 to the 48,000 building-trades workers employed were \$616,000 less than in November.

Employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds fell to 25,000 in the month ending December 15, a decrease of 6,000 from the preceding month. Pay rolls of \$2,703,000 were \$911,000 less than in November.

Construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation furnished employment to approximately 1,800 workers in the month ending December 15. This figure represents a slight decrease from the preceding month. Pay-roll disbursements for the month totaled \$177,000.

Work-relief projects financed by the Work Projects Administration gave employment to 1,809,000 persons in December, an increase of 63,000 over November. Wage payments of \$100,148,000 were \$9,348,000 greater than in November. The number of persons at work on Federal-agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration declined 7,000 in December, leaving 66,000 persons still employed. Pay-roll disbursements totaled \$3,149,000.

The National Youth Administration increased employment on both the student-work program and the out-of-school work program in December. A gain of 11,000 on the student-work program raised the total to 451,000 and an increase of 65,000 on the out-of-school work program brought the number employed up to 331,000.

The end of an enlistment period resulted in a decline of 35,000 in the number of persons employed in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Of the 286,000 persons on the pay roll, 251,500 were enrollees; 1,500, educational advisers; 200, nurses; and 32,800, supervisory and technical employees. Pay-roll disbursements totaled \$12,928,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government employment increases were reported in the executive and military branches, while decreases were reported in the judicial and legislative branches. Of the 1,186,000 employees in the executive service, 156,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 1,030,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees on the pay roll of the United States

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projects. The number of workers engaged in building naval vessels was increased by 6,000 during the month. Employment decreases on nondefense construction partially offset the gains on building and naval-vessel construction, leaving a net gain of 122,000 over November. Pay-roll disbursements of \$82,887,000 to the 753,000 men employed on all types of projects exceeded November payments by \$17,748,000.

Seasonal curtailment of employment to the extent of about 3,000 men occurred on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority. Wage payments of \$4,887,000 to the 48,000 building-trades workers employed were \$616,000 less than in November.

Employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds fell to 25,000 in the month ending December 15, a decrease of 6,000 from the preceding month. Pay rolls of \$2,703,000 were \$911,000 less than in November.

Construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation furnished employment to approximately 1,800 workers in the month ending December 15. This figure represents a slight decrease from the preceding month. Pay-roll disbursements for the month totaled \$177,000.

Work-relief projects financed by the Work Projects Administration gave employment to 1,809,000 persons in December, an increase of 63,000 over November. Wage payments of \$100,148,000 were \$9,348,000 greater than in November. The number of persons at work on Federal-agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration declined 7,000 in December, leaving 66,000 persons still employed. Pay-roll disbursements totaled \$3,149,000.

The National Youth Administration increased employment on both the student-work program and the out-of-school work program in December. A gain of 11,000 on the student-work program raised the total to 451,000 and an increase of 65,000 on the out-of-school work program brought the number employed up to 331,000.

The end of an enlistment period resulted in a decline of 35,000 in the number of persons employed in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Of the 286,000 persons on the pay roll, 251,500 were enrollees; 1,500, educational advisers; 200, nurses; and 32,800, supervisory and technical employees. Pay-roll disbursements totaled \$12,928,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government employment increases were reported in the executive and military branches, while decreases were reported in the judicial and legislative branches. Of the 1,186,000 employees in the executive service, 156,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 1,030,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees on the pay roll of the United States

Government who are engaged on construction projects, and whose period of employment terminates as the project is completed) were 12 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. Increased employment was reported in the War, Navy, and Post Office Departments and the Panama Canal, while decreases were reported in the Department of Agriculture and the Department of the Interior.

Seasonal influences were responsible for a decrease of 37,000 in the number of men working on State-financed road projects. Of the 143,500 on the pay roll, 35,000 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 108,000 on maintenance. Pay-roll disbursements of \$10,890,000 were \$1,787,000 less than in November.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data in the regular Federal services and on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Employment and Pay Rolls, Regular Federal Services and Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds, December 1940 (Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	December 1940	November 1940	Percentage change	December 1940	November 1940	Percentage change
Federal services:						
Executive <sup>1</sup> .....	1,185,558	1,111,530	+6.7	\$183,606,341	\$168,388,802	+9.0
Judicial.....	2,907	2,919	-.4	681,361	669,379	+1.8
Legislative.....	5,921	5,932	-.2	1,305,706	1,294,629	+.9
Military.....	884,094	821,662	+7.6	56,586,999	52,706,914	+7.2
Construction projects:						
Financed by regular Federal appropriations.....	752,830	630,848	+19.3	82,886,826	65,138,967	+27.2
USHA low-rent housing.....	48,008	50,806	-5.5	4,886,898	5,502,764	-11.2
Financed by PWA <sup>2</sup> .....	24,676	31,117	-26.1	2,703,209	3,614,039	-12.6
Financed by RFC <sup>3</sup> .....	1,775	1,826	-2.8	176,660	191,592	-7.8
Federal agency projects financed by:						
Work Projects Administration.....	66,308	73,306	-9.5	3,148,501	3,474,911	-9.4
Projects operated by WPA.....	1,808,595	1,746,065	+3.6	100,148,212	90,800,674	+10.3
National Youth Administration:						
Student work program.....	450,547	439,548	+2.5	3,107,372	3,067,736	+1.3
Out-of-school program.....	331,382	266,759	+24.2	6,522,370	5,504,433	+18.5
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	285,731	321,157	-11.0	12,928,027	14,016,434	-7.8

<sup>1</sup> Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 174,238 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$22,819,794 for December 1940, and 164,277 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$21,692,218 for November 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 4,034 wage earners and \$398,741 pay roll for December 1940; 4,629 wage earners and \$473,672 pay roll for November 1940, covering Public Works Administration Projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 19,462 wage earners and \$2,205,877 pay roll for December 1940; 23,979 wage earners and \$2,906,994 pay roll for November 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

<sup>3</sup> Includes 546 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$49,081 for December 1940; 606 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$63,405 for November 1940 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

<sup>4</sup> Revised.

## DETAILED REPORTS FOR NOVEMBER 1940

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of November 1940, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

### *Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment*

The revised estimates of "total nonagricultural employment," given on the first line of table 1, represents the total number of persons engaged in gainful work in the United States in nonagricultural industries, including proprietors and firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers, but excluding military and naval personnel, persons employed on WPA, or NYA projects, and enrollees in CCC camps. The series described as "employees in nonagricultural establishments" does not include proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and casual workers, as well as the groups excluded from "total nonagricultural employment." The estimates for "employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown separately for each of seven major industry groups. Tables giving revised figures for each group, by months, for the period from January 1929 to date are available on request.

In addition to the revision of the Government estimates to exclude military and naval forces, revisions were made which affected several other industry groups. These revisions were based on data for 1939 and the first half of 1940 compiled from the reports of employers in connection with unemployment compensation.

The figures represent the number of persons working at any time during the week ending nearest the middle of each month. The totals for the United States have been adjusted to conform to the figures shown by the 1930 Census of Occupations for the number of nonagricultural "gainful workers" less the number shown to have been unemployed for 1 week or more at the time of the census. Separate estimates for "employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown in table 2 for each of the 48 States and the District of Columbia for October and November 1940 and November 1939. Tables showing monthly figures for each State from January 1938 to date are available on request. Because the State figures do not include employees on merchant vessels and because of certain adjust-



ments in the United States estimates which have not been made on a State basis, the total of the State estimates will not agree exactly with the figure for the United States as a whole.

These estimates are based in large part on industrial censuses and on regular reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and to other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission. Data derived from employers' quarterly reports in connection with "old-age and survivors' insurance," and employers' monthly reports in connection with unemployment compensation have been used extensively as a check on estimates derived from other sources, and in some industries they have provided the most reliable information available.

TABLE 1.—*Estimates of Total Nonagricultural Employment, by Major Groups*

[In thousands]

Industrial group	November 1940 (preliminary)	October 1940	Change October to November 1940	November 1939	Change November 1939 to November 1940
Total nonagricultural employment <sup>1</sup> .....	36, 546	36, 497	+49	35, 418	+1, 128
Employees in nonagricultural establishments <sup>2</sup> .....	30, 403	30, 354	+49	29, 275	+1, 128
Manufacturing.....	10, 435	10, 373	+62	9, 886	+549
Mining.....	861	856	+5	881	-20
Construction.....	1, 583	1, 580	+2	1, 310	+272
Transportation and public utilities.....	3, 065	3, 121	-56	3, 023	+42
Trade.....	6, 422	6, 362	+60	6, 329	+33
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.....	4, 167	4, 186	-19	4, 121	+46
Federal, State, and local government:					
Civil employees.....	3, 871	3, 876	-5	3, 725	+146
Military and naval forces <sup>3</sup> .....	822	733	+89	402	+420

<sup>1</sup> Revised series—Excludes military and naval forces. Also excludes employees on WPA and NYA projects, as well as enrollees in CCC camps. Includes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants.

<sup>2</sup> Excludes all of the groups omitted from "total nonagricultural employment" as well as proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic servants.

<sup>3</sup> Not included in totals shown above. Includes members of the National Guard inducted into the Federal service by act of Congress.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States*

[Excludes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, domestic workers, the armed forces of the United States, employees on merchant vessels, persons employed on WPA and NYA projects, and enrollees in CCC camps]

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	November 1940 (preliminary)	October 1940	Change October to November 1940		November 1939	Change November 1939 to November 1940	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
New England.....	2, 606	2, 594	+12	+0.5	2, 509	+97	+3.9
Maine.....	185	188	-3	-1.3	186	-1	-.1
New Hampshire.....	127	128	-1	-.6	126	+1	+1.2
Vermont.....	77	78	-1	-.7	75	+2	+3.3
Massachusetts.....	1, 354	1, 353	+1	+1.1	1, 315	+39	+3.0
Rhode Island.....	243	240	+3	+1.3	238	+5	+2.1
Connecticut.....	620	607	+13	+2.3	569	+51	+8.9
Middle Atlantic.....	7, 887	7, 871	+16	+2.2	7, 679	+208	+2.7
New York.....	3, 916	3, 908	+8	+2.2	3, 863	+53	+1.4
New Jersey.....	1, 213	1, 219	-6	-.4	1, 136	+77	+6.8
Pennsylvania.....	2, 758	2, 744	+14	+5.5	2, 680	+78	+2.9

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States—Continued

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	November 1940 (preliminary)	October 1940	Change October to November 1940		November 1939	Change November 1939 to November 1940	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
East North Central.....	7,057	7,020	+37	+0.5	6,659	+398	+6.0
Ohio.....	1,822	1,816	+6	+3	1,750	+72	+4.1
Indiana.....	815	817	-2	-2	764	+51	+6.7
Illinois.....	2,297	2,284	+13	+6	2,202	+95	+4.3
Michigan.....	1,479	1,456	+23	+1.6	1,324	+155	+11.7
Wisconsin.....	644	647	-3	-4	619	+25	+4.1
West North Central.....	2,377	2,383	-6	-3	2,329	+48	+2.0
Minnesota.....	533	532	+1	+1	519	+14	+2.7
Iowa.....	406	407	-1	-2	400	+6	+1.3
Missouri.....	744	776	-2	-3	761	+13	+1.7
North Dakota.....	78	79	-1	-1.8	75	+3	+3.4
South Dakota.....	85	86	-1	-6	82	+3	+3.7
Nebraska.....	204	205	-1	-5	201	+3	+1.4
Kansas.....	297	298	-1	-3	291	+6	+2.1
South Atlantic.....	3,616	3,589	+27	+8	3,447	+169	+4.9
Delaware.....	71	75	-4	-5.0	67	+4	+5.0
Maryland.....	526	523	+3	+7	497	+29	+6.0
District of Columbia.....	361	359	+2	+8	326	+35	+10.8
Virginia.....	509	508	+1	+1	484	+25	+5.2
West Virginia.....	376	376	0	-1	382	-6	-1.4
North Carolina.....	613	611	+2	+4	599	+14	+2.3
South Carolina.....	287	286	+1	+ <sup>(1)</sup>	276	+11	+3.8
Georgia.....	480	482	-2	-3	464	+16	+3.5
Florida.....	393	369	+24	+6.5	352	+41	+11.7
East South Central.....	1,390	1,389	+1	+1	1,345	+45	+3.4
Kentucky.....	365	366	-1	-2	365	0	- <sup>(1)</sup>
Tennessee.....	456	460	-4	-9	440	+16	+3.7
Alabama.....	380	376	+4	+1.1	356	+24	+6.9
Mississippi.....	189	187	+2	+8	184	+5	+2.4
West South Central.....	1,867	1,864	+3	+2	1,822	+45	+2.5
Arkansas.....	183	183	0	+ <sup>(1)</sup>	179	+4	+2.2
Louisiana.....	391	388	+3	+8	377	+14	+3.7
Oklahoma.....	294	295	-1	-6	295	-1	-4
Texas.....	999	998	+1	+1	971	+28	+2.9
Mountain.....	778	787	-9	-1.1	763	+15	+2.1
Montana.....	114	114	0	-5	112	+2	+1.5
Idaho.....	86	87	-1	-1	87	-1	-1
Wyoming.....	53	54	-1	-2.3	53	0	-1
Colorado.....	226	230	-4	-1.8	220	+6	+2.7
New Mexico.....	69	69	0	-8	67	+2	+3.1
Arizona.....	90	89	+1	+1.0	87	+3	+3.0
Utah.....	108	111	-3	-2.3	106	+2	+2.0
Nevada.....	32	33	-1	-1.2	31	+1	+6.0
Pacific.....	2,433	2,466	-33	-1.4	2,316	+117	+5.1
Washington.....	430	436	-6	-1.3	413	+17	+4.2
Oregon.....	231	235	-4	-1.8	226	+5	+2.1
California.....	1,772	1,795	-23	-1.3	1,677	+95	+5.7

<sup>1</sup> Less than 0.1 percent.

### Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 157 manufacturing industries, 16 nonmanufacturing industries including private building construction, water transportation, and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys

by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission. They are presented in the foregoing summary.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923-25 as 100 and are adjusted to 1937 census data. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 of the 157 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries covered.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

The indexes for retail trade have been adjusted to conform in general with the 1935 Census of Retail Distribution and are weighted by lines of trade. For the public utilities they have been adjusted to the 1937 Census of Electrical Industries, for wholesale trade to the 1933 census, and for coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning to the 1935 censuses.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 3 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample vary slightly from month to month. Therefore, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly



comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown.

#### EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS

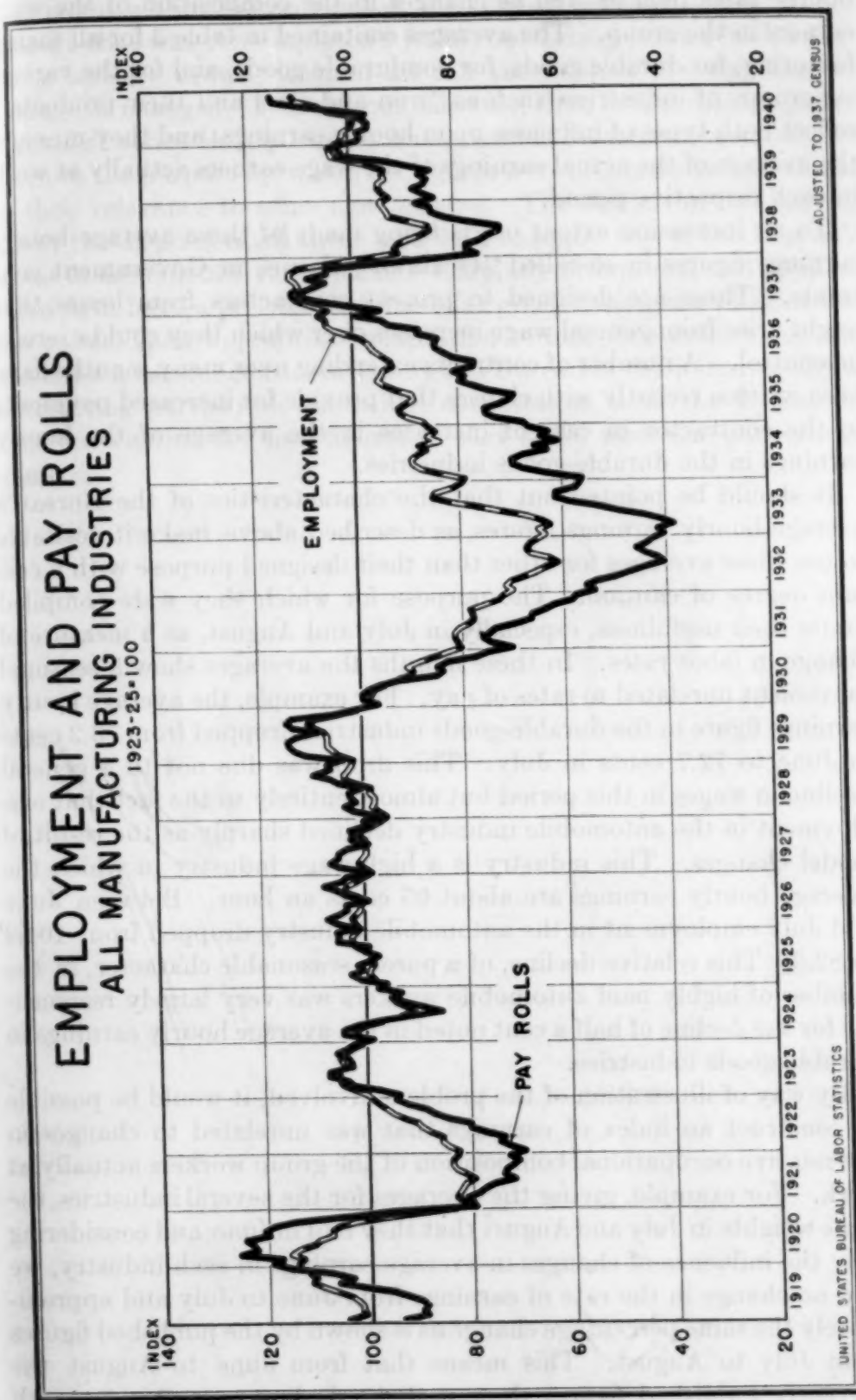
The indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries for September, October and November 1940, where available, are presented in table 3. The September and October figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports.

In table 4 indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and non-durable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 non-manufacturing industries, by months, from November 1939 to November 1940, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to November 1940.

*Use of average hourly earnings in "escalator" clauses*<sup>1</sup>—Average hourly earnings of wage earners, such as those shown in table 3, have been compiled regularly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics since 1932. These averages are published for the use of those who wish either to compare the average earnings of wage earners in different industries or to study the changes in average earnings over a period of time.

Certain characteristics of the average earnings should be indicated. The average of the actual earnings of wage earners as a group may change from one period to another for either of two reasons: (1) By reason of changes in the wages paid or (2) by reason of changes in the composition of the group of wage earners actually at work in different periods. As an example of the latter cause of change, it is evident that if, from one month to the next, the number of wage earners employed in a high-wage industry increases proportionally more than employment generally has increased, the average of actual earnings for the group as a whole will increase. This increase might take place even though there were no changes whatsoever in the earnings of any wage earner in any one of the establishments. It is apparent, therefore, that the Bureau's averages reflect both changes in the actual

<sup>1</sup> Reprint from the August Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet.



hourly rates paid as well as changes in the composition of the wage earners in the group. The averages contained in table 3 for all manufacturing, for durable goods, for nondurable goods, and for the various subgroups of industries, such as "iron and steel and their products," reflect both types of influence upon hourly earnings; and they measure the average of the actual earnings of the wage earners actually at work in each respective period.

To an increasing extent use is being made of these average hourly earnings figures in so-called "escalator" clauses in Government contracts. These are designed to protect contractors from losses that might arise from general wage increases over which they could exercise no control. A number of contracts extending over many months have been written recently with clauses that provide for increased payments to the contractor in case of increases in the average of the hourly earnings in the durable-goods industries.

It should be pointed out that the characteristics of the Bureau's average hourly earnings figures, as described above, make it desirable to use these averages for other than their designed purpose with a certain degree of caution. The purpose for which they were compiled limits their usefulness, especially in July and August, as a measure of change in labor rates. In these months the averages show a seasonal movement unrelated to rates of pay. For example, the average hourly earnings figure in the durable-goods industries dropped from 73.2 cents in June to 72.7 cents in July. This drop was due not to a general decline in wages in this period but almost entirely to the fact that employment in the automobile industry declined sharply as the result of model changes. This industry is a high-wage industry in which the average hourly earnings are about 95 cents an hour. Between June and July employment in the automobile industry dropped from 104.9 to 82.3. This relative decline, of a purely seasonable character, in the number of highly paid automobile workers was very largely responsible for the decline of half a cent noted in the average hourly earnings in durable-goods industries.

By way of illustration of the problem involved, it would be possible to construct an index of earnings that was unrelated to changes in the relative occupational composition of the group workers actually at work. For example, giving the averages for the several industries, the same weights in July and August that they had in June, and considering only the influence of changes in average earnings in each industry, we find no change in the rate of earnings from June to July and approximately the same percentage change as is shown by the published figures from July to August. This means that from June to August the currently published figures show a slight decline over this 3-month interval, whereas the series computed with constant weights shows a small gain.



It is not within the province of the Bureau to indicate the type of average that was contemplated by the contracting parties in the contracts already drawn; least of all can the method of compiling an average be changed. It is obvious, however, that, in incorporating any statistical series in legal documents, careful consideration should be given to the purpose for which the figures were originally compiled and to their relevance to some new purpose. The officials of the Bureau are at the disposal of all those who wish to apply any of the Bureau's series to administrative problems. Carefully interpreted and applied, these data have a present usefulness far greater than was imagined in the past. Their appropriate adaptation to new uses involves on the one hand a careful consideration by the Bureau of the purposes of the contracting parties; on the other, consultation with the Bureau to discover whether the new figures as they stand meet the purposes in mind.

TABLE 3.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100, and are adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures for all industries except automobiles. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings <sup>1</sup>			Average hours worked per week <sup>1</sup>			Average hourly earnings <sup>1</sup>		
	Novem-ber 1940	Octo-ber 1940	Sep-tem-ber 1940	Novem-ber 1940	Octo-ber 1940	Sep-tem-ber 1940	Novem-ber 1940	Octo-ber 1940	Sep-tem-ber 1940	Novem-ber 1940	Octo-ber 1940	Sep-tem-ber 1940	Novem-ber 1940	Octo-ber 1940	Sep-tem-ber 1940
<b>All manufacturing</b> .....	110.8	110.0	107.7	114.8	114.5	110.1	826.93	827.13	826.54	38.6	39.3	38.8	67.8	67.3	67.1
<b>Durable goods</b> .....	112.6	109.9	105.5	124.0	122.2	114.1	31.43	31.43	30.57	40.2	41.0	40.2	74.4	73.9	73.7
<b>Non-durable goods</b> .....	109.1	110.2	109.8	104.5	105.9	105.6	92.08	92.28	92.20	37.1	37.6	37.5	61.3	60.9	61.1
<b>Durable goods</b>															
<i>Durable goods</i>															
<b>Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery</b> .....	119.3	117.1	113.6	125.8	123.6	118.1	31.01	30.97	30.80	38.6	39.9	39.2	78.1	77.8	77.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	127.3	125.2	123.2	134.6	131.0	127.9	33.43	33.04	32.77	39.1	38.8	38.4	85.7	85.1	85.4
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	128.1	121.3	117.9	161.5	149.5	139.1	30.30	29.68	28.38	42.4	42.4	40.9	71.5	70.0	69.4
Cast-iron pipe	86.3	83.9	81.9	80.2	84.8	79.3	24.57	24.10	23.02	40.6	39.8	38.3	60.3	60.2	59.7
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	112.6	111.3	107.0	108.3	106.3	100.7	25.10	25.02	24.65	40.8	40.9	40.2	63.4	62.2	62.4
Forgings, iron and steel	83.3	80.4	76.7	106.2	102.2	91.9	34.39	34.30	32.51	42.4	42.8	40.9	81.7	80.8	79.6
Hardware	109.0	105.3	101.2	122.3	118.8	113.5	27.56	27.74	27.53	40.4	40.6	39.8	68.3	68.4	69.1
Plumbers' supplies	94.2	91.0	88.5	88.1	85.1	80.8	27.25	27.26	26.57	38.8	39.2	38.3	70.1	69.5	69.4
Stamped and enameled ware	190.1	189.4	176.5	210.7	217.8	201.1	26.00	26.96	26.71	38.9	40.8	40.5	66.3	66.2	66.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	102.2	99.4	94.3	103.4	102.5	91.1	30.78	31.34	29.34	42.1	43.2	41.2	72.7	72.7	71.5
Stoves	104.7	105.9	101.2	99.2	105.9	97.4	27.26	28.78	27.54	39.8	41.9	40.4	68.1	68.4	68.2
Structural and ornamental metalwork	86.5	85.6	83.4	78.7	79.6	74.8	23.26	30.02	28.99	40.0	41.0	39.5	73.2	73.3	73.5
Tin cans and other tinware	100.2	101.4	105.2	104.1	113.1	116.8	23.47	25.16	25.01	37.0	40.0	39.6	63.5	63.2	63.4
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	111.6	106.0	99.9	124.0	113.3	104.0	27.82	26.81	26.33	43.4	42.2	41.4	64.3	63.7	63.8
Wirework	203.5	190.6	164.7	235.1	226.3	189.0	28.45	29.26	28.39	40.7	41.9	40.3	70.9	70.8	71.5
<b>Machinery, not including transportation equipment</b> .....	131.1	127.3	123.1	149.3	145.3	137.9	31.65	31.71	31.32	42.0	42.4	41.8	75.2	74.9	74.6
Agricultural implements (including tractors)	136.6	134.9	133.5	160.4	158.8	156.2	31.29	31.41	31.17	39.0	39.2	39.1	80.6	80.2	79.9
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	133.6	132.0	131.8	144.0	142.1	140.3	33.77	33.68	33.23	40.6	40.5	40.2	83.9	83.6	83.1
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	120.6	116.1	111.2	145.0	138.2	131.4	31.61	31.26	31.21	41.9	41.7	41.3	75.7	75.2	75.7
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and windmills	199.7	190.4	182.2	273.2	263.4	249.4	36.21	36.74	36.24	43.2	44.4	44.7	83.4	82.2	80.5
Foundry and machine-shop products	110.1	106.7	103.4	114.8	111.7	105.4	30.99	31.18	30.31	41.6	42.1	41.2	74.5	74.0	73.4
Machine tools	265.9	257.8	248.0	354.7	351.7	332.3	36.85	37.69	37.02	48.0	49.1	48.4	76.8	77.0	76.6

Radios and phonographs.....

159.4	163.6	159.5	155.7	164.3	161.5	23.97	24.74	24.89	39.2	40.1	40.2	61.3	61.8	62.1
159.1	163.3	155.4	155.7	164.3	161.5	26.56	27.24	26.84	39.9	41.0	40.3	60.7	60.5	60.6
159.1	163.3	155.4	155.7	164.3	161.5	26.56	27.24	26.84	39.9	41.0	40.3	60.7	60.5	60.6
159.1	163.3	155.4	155.7	164.3	161.5	26.56	27.24	26.84	39.9	41.0	40.3	60.7	60.5	60.6

Radio and phonographs.....	159.4	163.6	155.7	164.3	161.5	23.97	24.74	24.80	39.2	40.1	40.2	61.3	61.8	62.1
Textile machinery and parts.....	82.7	79.7	80.1	78.8	76.4	26.56	27.24	26.84	39.9	41.0	40.4	66.7	66.5	66.0
Typewriters and parts.....	130.7	126.8	122.5	163.2	137.2	31.13	31.52	27.43	45.5	45.8	42.1	68.4	68.9	68.0
<b>Transportation equipment.....</b>	<b>146.0</b>	<b>139.5</b>	<b>126.9</b>	<b>168.9</b>	<b>141.5</b>	<b>38.39</b>	<b>37.39</b>	<b>35.60</b>	<b>40.4</b>	<b>41.6</b>	<b>40.0</b>	<b>90.2</b>	<b>89.8</b>	<b>90.0</b>
Aircraft.....	4478.1	4115.9	3764.3	5175.3	4211.9	33.44	32.62	32.37	44.9	44.3	44.6	75.1	74.7	73.8
Automobiles.....	129.5	125.1	112.1	150.5	125.2	38.11	39.24	36.67	39.9	41.3	38.6	95.5	94.9	95.0
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	61.6	56.2	53.6	53.7	49.5	27.40	28.12	28.94	37.4	37.7	38.0	73.0	74.3	76.3
Locomotives.....	42.2	39.3	35.6	43.5	36.6	31.61	31.24	31.57	40.0	40.2	40.2	79.0	77.8	78.5
Shipbuilding.....	204.2	197.4	188.1	239.0	227.5	34.91	36.93	36.08	38.6	41.7	40.9	89.1	87.7	87.4
<b>Nonferrous metals and their products.....</b>	<b>139.8</b>	<b>126.1</b>	<b>119.8</b>	<b>141.4</b>	<b>138.0</b>	<b>30.02</b>	<b>30.00</b>	<b>29.38</b>	<b>41.4</b>	<b>42.0</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>72.7</b>	<b>71.2</b>	<b>71.0</b>
Aluminum manufactures.....	208.3	203.0	195.3	255.4	239.3	29.93	29.91	29.75	41.1	41.4	41.1	72.8	72.2	72.4
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	162.4	154.9	146.6	201.7	177.6	33.98	33.37	32.97	42.6	43.4	42.7	79.9	77.4	77.5
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices.....	106.7	104.6	100.5	121.7	108.6	25.39	25.35	23.98	41.6	42.0	40.3	60.6	60.3	59.4
Jewelry.....	110.5	110.8	102.7	94.4	97.8	23.57	24.37	24.45	39.6	42.0	41.8	59.0	58.2	58.2
Lighting equipment.....	109.8	106.8	99.7	100.0	90.2	28.31	28.22	28.26	40.8	40.7	40.8	69.5	69.2	69.3
Silverware and plated ware.....	79.6	78.7	72.9	81.4	78.2	29.44	29.34	27.69	44.1	44.3	42.4	67.6	67.3	65.8
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	94.8	94.6	92.4	93.8	91.8	28.46	27.82	28.05	38.4	38.3	39.1	74.0	72.7	71.8
<b>Lumber and allied products.....</b>	<b>74.4</b>	<b>74.4</b>	<b>73.4</b>	<b>70.9</b>	<b>71.3</b>	<b>30.75</b>	<b>21.49</b>	<b>21.06</b>	<b>38.9</b>	<b>40.7</b>	<b>39.9</b>	<b>52.6</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>52.5</b>
Furniture.....	97.0	96.8	94.6	90.4	87.4	22.49	22.49	22.07	40.2	41.3	40.6	55.5	54.7	54.6
Lumber.....	71.2	69.3	66.7	58.2	55.0	22.55	23.30	22.84	41.2	42.6	41.8	54.8	54.7	54.6
Millwork.....	66.1	66.6	66.3	60.9	63.8	19.06	20.23	19.85	37.7	40.0	39.2	50.5	50.6	50.7
Sawmills.....	88.9	87.5	85.8	82.9	79.7	25.17	25.75	25.27	37.1	38.1	37.4	67.1	67.1	67.2
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	65.5	65.0	64.7	54.4	54.0	21.47	21.87	21.62	37.4	38.5	38.1	57.2	56.6	56.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	73.9	75.7	75.1	72.9	76.8	28.22	28.55	29.18	39.5	39.9	40.1	71.2	71.6	72.7
Cement.....	117.0	113.2	109.3	130.8	129.8	27.26	27.90	26.90	36.6	37.4	36.0	74.6	74.7	75.0
Glass.....	46.3	47.9	48.7	31.9	37.6	23.96	27.03	26.87	34.0	37.8	36.9	70.8	71.7	72.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	102.4	98.0	93.6	96.3	86.5	24.00	24.06	23.45	37.6	37.9	37.5	63.6	63.4	63.1
Pottery.....	105.5	104.5	102.6	92.3	92.6	17.80	18.10	18.09	35.5	35.9	35.7	50.4	50.9	51.4
<b>Textiles and their products.....</b>	<b>98.7</b>	<b>96.1</b>	<b>92.8</b>	<b>90.9</b>	<b>89.5</b>	<b>17.71</b>	<b>17.95</b>	<b>17.57</b>	<b>36.8</b>	<b>37.3</b>	<b>36.4</b>	<b>48.7</b>	<b>48.7</b>	<b>48.7</b>
Fabrics.....	81.6	79.6	75.8	73.1	72.8	24.80	25.31	23.90	36.6	37.5	35.6	67.9	67.5	67.1
Carpets and rugs.....	98.1	96.1	91.7	92.3	85.3	15.24	15.41	15.11	37.0	37.2	36.4	41.2	41.4	41.5
Cotton goods.....	87.3	83.2	79.0	87.1	77.3	19.39	19.41	19.01	39.1	39.2	38.2	49.7	49.6	49.0
Cotton small wares.....	132.0	128.6	124.8	113.5	106.5	21.07	21.15	20.81	38.6	39.1	38.2	54.3	53.9	54.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	82.0	80.1	86.4	73.7	77.1	24.49	23.19	25.00	33.6	31.3	33.1	72.8	73.0	73.8
Hats, fur-felt.....	144.9	142.8	138.6	160.4	158.1	19.67	19.68	18.87	36.0	36.1	34.2	54.7	54.8	55.1
Hosiery.....	73.2	75.3	73.2	63.5	64.3	18.15	18.22	18.41	36.9	37.4	38.0	48.0	47.9	48.0
Knitted underwear.....	76.5	76.0	73.8	72.5	72.1	16.02	16.03	15.59	36.3	36.7	36.0	44.2	43.8	43.6
Knitted cloth.....	150.0	157.3	153.6	129.5	136.3	19.24	19.34	20.25	38.7	39.6	40.7	49.5	48.2	49.5
Silk and rayon goods.....	65.2	64.6	63.6	52.2	52.4	16.43	16.63	16.50	36.0	36.6	37.6	45.3	45.3	45.5
Woolen and worsted goods.....	98.7	94.1	88.8	88.9	87.6	20.02	21.62	21.47	36.8	38.2	37.6	56.9	56.6	57.1
Wearing apparel.....	116.3	118.9	120.7	89.6	94.9	18.05	18.53	19.51	33.0	33.4	34.4	53.9	55.2	56.3
Clothing, men's.....	104.8	104.4	107.8	76.4	77.4	18.81	18.99	19.72	31.1	31.5	32.7	60.1	60.2	60.3
Clothing, women's.....	165.5	171.5	171.1	119.7	131.1	141.5	141.5	141.5	33.7	33.8	35.1	52.8	54.7	56.3
Corsets and allied garments.....	113.2	112.6	112.1	121.1	124.2	17.95	18.46	18.35	36.1	38.0	37.8	48.5	48.3	48.3
Men's furnishings.....	128.4	127.7	122.5	140.4	133.8	16.65	15.96	14.88	37.2	36.8	34.6	43.1	42.1	41.7
Millinery.....	60.9	76.1	87.1	40.9	93.8	20.07	21.65	31.87	28.6	30.7	39.8	66.0	64.4	71.1
Shirts and collars.....	120.6	121.9	121.5	112.8	108.1	14.77	14.92	14.16	34.8	35.6	33.8	41.7	41.6	41.6

See footnotes at end of table.



TABLE 3.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued  
MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Novem- ber 1940	Octo- ber 1940	Sep- tember 1940	Novem- ber 1940	Octo- ber 1940	Sep- tember 1940	Novem- ber 1940	Octo- ber 1940	Sep- tember 1940	Novem- ber 1940	Octo- ber 1940	Sep- tember 1940	Novem- ber 1940	Octo- ber 1940	Sep- tember 1940
<i>Nondurable goods</i>															
<b>Leather and its manufactures</b>															
Boots and shoes	87.0	90.0	90.8	68.5	73.4	74.6	318.59	17.03	17.93	18.32	32.4	34.8	33.5	34.8	34.8
Leather	84.1	88.4	89.7	62.5	69.1	72.0	17.03	17.03	17.93	18.32	32.4	34.8	33.5	34.8	34.8
	83.9	81.6	79.9	82.8	81.6	76.8	24.57	25.04	24.09	37.9	38.3	37.1	35.8	35.7	35.3
<b>Food and kindred products</b>															
Baking	132.5	141.3	147.4	138.7	134.9	138.5	24.43	23.89	23.48	39.3	40.0	40.3	61.0	61.0	60.3
Beverages	145.5	145.9	146.6	138.3	139.2	140.8	26.20	26.31	26.60	41.0	41.5	41.6	64.0	63.5	64.1
Butter	293.0	271.3	283.3	302.3	314.4	332.2	33.61	33.83	34.25	38.0	38.7	39.2	88.3	88.3	88.0
Canning and preserving	99.4	95.7	99.8	82.2	81.6	88.4	21.77	22.60	23.30	44.3	45.2	46.9	48.7	48.9	49.2
Confectionery	123.2	201.5	268.9	100.6	170.5	231.7	15.54	16.11	16.40	33.4	37.6	38.5	48.0	44.0	43.5
Dairy products	102.4	102.0	96.2	100.1	103.2	98.3	19.05	19.63	19.94	38.7	40.1	40.3	49.5	49.3	50.1
Flour	79.0	80.6	80.7	72.3	77.9	81.3	24.59	25.98	27.04	40.5	42.4	43.7	60.9	61.2	61.6
Ice cream	70.9	73.8	81.2	61.0	64.0	69.9	29.61	30.03	29.84	43.7	44.4	45.6	65.8	65.8	64.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	116.2	109.6	108.0	118.9	115.8	112.6	26.82	27.64	27.38	39.0	40.3	39.6	68.6	68.4	69.1
Sugar, beet	277.0	260.9	101.5	288.0	217.1	116.3	26.81	20.98	20.55	49.3	36.4	42.7	55.1	57.0	71.0
Sugar refining, cane	93.5	95.0	91.5	83.7	78.3	78.3	25.36	24.71	24.23	39.5	38.2	36.9	64.1	64.6	65.7
<b>Tobacco manufactures</b>															
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	66.8	66.5	65.8	66.4	66.5	65.9	18.14	18.26	18.49	37.9	37.6	37.8	48.6	48.4	48.7
Cigars and cigarettes	55.8	56.6	56.1	66.5	67.6	67.1	19.21	19.28	19.32	35.0	35.7	35.7	54.9	54.3	54.4
	68.1	67.7	66.9	66.3	66.2	65.7	17.95	18.05	18.24	37.4	37.8	38.0	47.9	47.8	48.2
<b>Paper and printing</b>															
Boxes, paper	118.2	117.7	116.2	115.4	115.2	113.4	29.35	29.30	29.18	38.4	38.7	38.4	79.3	79.2	79.3
Paper and pulp	126.1	124.1	120.3	144.0	141.7	134.3	22.79	22.77	22.19	40.4	40.9	39.8	56.5	56.1	56.0
Printing and publishing	115.7	115.1	116.7	123.8	123.8	124.2	26.35	26.45	26.12	40.2	40.5	39.9	65.6	65.4	65.4
Book and job	102.5	102.6	99.7	90.1	91.0	87.8	30.62	30.89	30.55	38.2	38.8	38.5	81.2	80.7	80.5
Newspapers and periodicals	118.2	117.8	116.0	112.4	111.5	111.1	38.06	37.85	38.46	35.2	35.9	36.1	102.9	102.6	102.9
<b>Chemicals, petroleum, and coal products</b>															
Petroleum refining	125.3	125.3	125.0	139.6	139.3	138.1	29.87	29.96	30.06	38.6	39.3	38.9	76.5	76.5	77.3
Other than petroleum refining	120.7	121.2	122.6	133.6	136.3	139.2	34.28	34.93	35.32	35.7	36.4	36.2	97.6	97.2	97.5
Chemicals	126.4	126.3	123.1	141.5	140.3	137.8	28.23	28.13	28.31	39.8	40.2	39.8	69.6	68.7	70.0
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	148.0	145.6	143.4	181.7	176.2	170.9	32.72	32.39	31.80	40.4	40.6	39.8	81.1	79.8	79.9
Druggists' preparations	126.9	131.1	81.0	121.6	128.2	78.1	15.50	15.91	15.50	45.0	46.2	43.5	33.0	32.7	34.7
Explosives	116.2	118.3	117.6	130.8	133.0	132.6	25.53	25.51	25.58	39.5	40.0	40.1	61.7	61.2	61.2
Fertilizers	147.2	144.9	147.8	186.5	180.9	175.4	34.96	34.44	32.74	39.8	40.1	39.0	86.8	85.9	84.0
Paints and varnishes	92.2	96.7	95.6	77.1	82.4	85.4	15.31	15.71	16.59	35.5	35.5	36.1	45.2	44.2	45.9
Rayon and allied products	126.0	125.1	126.1	135.8	135.6	135.6	29.35	29.20	29.40	40.2	41.1	40.8	73.1	72.0	72.0
Soap	314.5	311.1	311.7	331.4	322.6	327.7	26.95	26.53	26.90	39.1	38.7	39.6	69.0	68.5	68.2
Rubber products	84.5	87.9	88.8	100.2	107.2	107.0	27.93	28.42	28.69	38.9	39.9	40.5	71.8	71.1	70.9
Rubber boots and shoes	94.5	92.7	89.4	102.7	99.6	95.7	29.45	29.31	29.15	37.9	38.0	37.5	78.1	77.4	78.0
Rubber tires and inner tubes	61.0	58.7	56.1	65.7	62.9	59.5	24.76	24.64	24.38	40.1	39.5	39.2	61.7	61.7	62.2
Rubber goods other	75.3	74.0	72.6	90.7	86.7	84.6	35.32	34.37	34.08	36.3	35.7	35.2	97.2	96.1	97.1
	162.9	160.5	152.4	162.7	162.1	152.8	24.29	24.57	24.38	39.0	40.0	39.7	62.7	62.0	62.0

## NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Coal mining:	50.4	49.4	49.8	37.6	32.3	39.3	\$24.56	\$21.48	\$25.96	26.2	22.8	28.4	92.6	92.5	93.6
Anthracite <sup>1</sup> :	50.0	49.0	49.0	37.6	32.3	39.3	25.10	25.03	25.25	28.5	28.3	28.7	88.5	88.6	88.3
Bituminous <sup>1</sup> :	72.9	72.6	72.5	70.8	71.4	69.5	30.38	30.75	29.97	41.0	42.0	41.1	74.4	73.6	73.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining:	47.4	48.8	48.9	42.6	46.7	46.2	22.50	23.98	23.75	38.8	42.1	41.8	57.9	57.0	56.7
Crude-petroleum production:	61.4	62.4	63.0	56.5	57.6	58.2	33.78	33.89	33.98	37.8	38.0	36.9	87.6	87.5	89.5
Public utilities:	79.1	79.1	78.9	101.8	102.2	101.8	31.58	31.57	31.66	39.4	39.5	39.7	80.7	80.8	80.1
Telephone and telegraph <sup>2</sup> :	91.6	92.3	92.7	106.0	107.0	105.8	35.29	35.37	34.86	39.6	40.3	39.1	88.0	88.0	89.2
Electric light and power <sup>2</sup> :	68.6	68.7	68.5	70.2	70.7	71.5	33.44	33.63	34.15	45.5	45.7	46.5	72.4	72.5	72.6
Street railways and busses <sup>2</sup> :	91.9	91.0	90.9	80.6	80.2	81.1	30.46	30.61	31.08	40.7	41.3	41.5	74.6	73.9	74.8
Trade:	96.0	94.3	92.8	86.9	85.8	85.1	20.71	20.87	21.16	42.3	42.7	43.2	53.4	53.2	53.3
Wholesale <sup>3</sup> :	104.7	103.8	103.5	96.8	95.8	95.9	23.69	23.67	23.67	43.0	43.5	43.8	52.8	52.2	52.2
Retail <sup>3</sup> :	109.7	103.5	99.4	96.2	92.3	90.5	17.31	17.59	17.83	37.8	38.4	39.0	45.1	45.6	45.6
General merchandising <sup>4</sup> :	91.8	91.4	87.7	83.2	82.2	80.0	21.12	20.95	21.15	38.1	37.8	38.3	55.3	54.9	54.7
Apparel <sup>5</sup> :	77.4	77.8	75.9	70.1	70.1	68.8	28.39	28.40	28.63	44.4	44.4	44.3	67.9	68.1	68.4
Furniture <sup>6</sup> :	85.9	85.0	85.1	82.2	79.7	77.7	28.64	28.08	27.25	47.0	47.1	47.6	61.7	60.2	57.0
Automotive <sup>7</sup> :	77.4	79.4	78.3	71.7	76.0	75.6	25.87	26.77	26.97	41.2	43.1	43.0	63.2	62.8	63.8
Lumber <sup>8</sup> :	92.5	93.4	91.6	83.7	84.2	81.8	15.65	15.57	15.51	46.3	46.3	46.2	33.5	33.3	33.6
Hotels (year-round) <sup>9</sup> :	99.5	100.2	101.9	87.3	88.0	89.9	18.16	18.18	18.20	42.2	42.2	42.8	43.3	42.8	42.7
Laundries <sup>10</sup> :	106.2	109.4	110.0	78.0	82.4	85.6	20.10	20.61	21.30	41.9	43.0	44.3	49.2	49.0	49.2
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>11</sup> :	(11)	-1.6	-3.1	+4	+9	-1.9	37.24	37.10	35.97	(12)	(13)	(13)	(13)	(13)	(13)
Brokerage <sup>12</sup> :	+1	-3	+2.9	+2	+7	-6	36.37	36.32	35.89	(14)	(15)	(15)	(15)	(15)	(15)
Insurance <sup>13</sup> :	-4.2	+3.9	+2.9	-13.7	+6.5	+4.1	30.44	33.84	32.92	31.6	35.4	34.8	96.5	95.7	94.7
Building construction <sup>14</sup> :															

<sup>1</sup> Revised series. Mimeographed sheets giving averages by years, 1932 to 1939, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to August 1940, inclusive, available on request. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than average weekly earnings, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

<sup>2</sup> Revised series—Adjusted on basis of a complete employment survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for August 1940. Not comparable with previously published indexes from January 1938 to August 1940, inclusive. Comparable figures for this period given in table 9 of the September issue of the pamphlet "Employment and Pay Rolls."

<sup>3</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet.

<sup>4</sup> See table 7 of October 1940 issue for revised employment and pay-roll indexes, average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in anthracite mining, February 1940 to September 1940, inclusive.

<sup>5</sup> Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

<sup>6</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Reviews prior to April 1940, with one exception, retail furniture, which has been revised since publication of the July 1940 pamphlet back to January 1936. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

<sup>7</sup> Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance." See table 7 of October 1940 issue of the pamphlet.

<sup>8</sup> Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of the pamphlet.

<sup>9</sup> Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

<sup>10</sup> Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

<sup>11</sup> Less than  $\frac{1}{16}$  of 1 percent.

<sup>12</sup> Not available.

<sup>13</sup> Because of expansion in reporting, sample figures are not comparable with those previously published as indicated.

<sup>14</sup> Tin cans—Average hourly earnings (comparable August figure 63.3 cents);

<sup>15</sup> Electrical machinery—Average hourly earnings (comparable August figure 75.6 cents);

<sup>16</sup> Women's clothing—Average weekly earnings (comparable August figure \$20.80); average hourly earnings (comparable August figure 55.4 cents);

<sup>17</sup> Beverages—Average hourly earnings (comparable August figure 87.5 cents);

<sup>18</sup> Chemicals—Average hourly earnings (comparable August figure 79.8 cents);

<sup>19</sup> Cottonseed oil—Average weekly earnings (comparable August figure \$14.91), average weekly hours (comparable August figure 42.2), average hourly earnings (comparable August figure 34.2 cents);

<sup>20</sup> Fur-felt hats—Average weekly earnings (comparable August figure \$26.90).

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing<sup>1</sup> and Non-manufacturing<sup>2</sup> Industries, November 1939 to November 1940, Inclusive

Industry	Employment													
	1939			1940										
	Av.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.
<b>Manufacturing</b>														
All industries	96.9	103.9	104.2	101.5	100.9	100.9	99.7	99.1	99.6	99.7	103.8	107.7	110.0	110.8
Durable goods <sup>3</sup>	87.9	98.3	100.2	97.6	96.7	96.6	96.2	96.7	97.3	95.9	99.8	105.5	109.9	112.6
Nondurable goods <sup>4</sup>	105.5	109.2	108.0	105.3	106.1	105.1	103.0	101.4	101.7	103.3	107.6	109.8	110.2	109.1
<b>Nonmanufacturing</b>														
Anthracite mining <sup>5</sup>	50.6	51.3	51.0	51.5	51.6	52.2	51.2	51.8	49.7	50.5	49.9	49.8	49.4	50.4
Bituminous-coal mining <sup>5</sup>	78.6	94.9	92.6	91.8	91.7	89.7	86.2	85.1	83.8	84.9	86.6	87.7	89.2	90.0
Metalliferous mining	62.7	66.5	67.3	66.4	66.3	66.2	67.7	69.2	70.3	71.0	71.5	72.5	72.6	72.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	44.6	47.1	44.0	37.8	38.3	41.0	44.5	46.9	47.9	48.1	48.5	48.9	48.8	47.4
Crude-petroleum production	65.8	63.8	63.8	63.2	63.0	63.2	63.1	63.3	63.8	63.7	63.6	63.0	62.4	61.4
Telephone and telegraph <sup>6</sup>	75.8	76.1	75.8	76.1	75.9	76.0	76.7	77.3	77.8	78.8	79.0	78.9	79.1	79.1
Electric light and power <sup>6</sup>	89.0	90.3	90.1	89.1	89.2	89.3	90.0	90.6	91.2	92.2	93.0	92.7	92.3	91.6
Street railways and busses <sup>6,7</sup>	69.0	69.3	69.0	68.8	68.7	68.2	68.3	68.4	68.5	68.4	68.4	68.5	68.7	68.6
Wholesale trade	89.2	92.1	92.2	90.6	90.2	90.5	89.3	88.9	89.6	89.2	90.1	90.9	91.0	91.9
Retail trade <sup>6</sup>	89.8	93.3	104.2	87.7	87.0	91.1	89.8	91.2	91.9	89.1	88.7	92.8	94.3	96.0
Year-round hotels <sup>6</sup>	92.0	91.8	90.8	91.3	92.1	92.0	92.7	93.4	92.0	90.3	90.3	91.6	93.4	92.5
Laundries <sup>6</sup>	95.9	95.6	95.6	96.0	95.8	96.2	97.2	99.1	102.1	102.5	102.8	101.9	100.2	99.5
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>6</sup>	101.3	97.8	97.4	94.0	93.7	99.5	104.5	108.7	112.6	108.2	106.7	110.0	109.4	106.2
<b>Pay rolls</b>														
<b>Manufacturing</b>														
All industries	90.8	101.7	103.9	98.4	97.9	98.4	96.5	96.4	98.1	96.8	104.0	110.1	114.5	114.8
Durable goods <sup>3</sup>	85.3	101.1	104.8	98.4	96.9	97.8	97.5	97.8	100.4	96.5	105.5	114.1	122.2	124.0
Nondurable goods <sup>4</sup>	97.0	102.4	102.8	98.4	99.1	99.0	95.4	94.9	95.6	97.1	102.4	105.6	105.9	104.5
<b>Nonmanufacturing</b>														
Anthracite mining <sup>5</sup>	39.5	42.0	26.6	52.5	32.9	38.4	36.3	40.0	40.6	36.5	33.1	39.3	32.3	37.6
Bituminous-coal mining <sup>5</sup>	69.9	96.3	84.3	87.0	87.0	78.3	72.2	75.3	73.9	75.2	82.5	83.2	83.6	84.6
Metalliferous mining	56.0	63.9	65.0	63.6	64.2	63.2	63.5	65.7	65.4	63.7	68.5	69.5	71.4	70.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	38.7	42.9	39.2	29.6	30.8	34.1	38.1	42.7	43.9	43.5	45.2	46.2	46.7	42.6
Crude-petroleum production	61.0	59.6	59.2	58.4	59.0	58.4	59.0	58.7	58.8	59.1	59.0	58.2	57.6	56.5
Telephone and telegraph <sup>6</sup>	95.6	96.4	97.4	97.4	96.9	98.1	98.7	98.8	100.0	101.3	100.4	101.8	102.2	101.8
Electric light and power <sup>6</sup>	100.4	102.5	102.4	101.6	102.2	102.3	103.3	104.2	104.8	105.8	108.1	105.8	107.0	106.0
Street railways and busses <sup>6,7</sup>	69.5	69.4	69.8	69.0	71.5	69.5	69.2	69.2	70.5	70.0	70.4	71.5	70.7	70.2
Wholesale trade	76.6	79.0	79.1	77.1	77.1	77.8	77.4	77.4	78.4	78.3	78.7	81.1	80.2	80.6
Retail trade <sup>6</sup>	80.8	83.6	91.8	79.9	79.1	82.0	82.3	83.4	84.8	82.6	81.5	85.1	85.8	86.9
Year-round hotels <sup>6</sup>	81.2	81.8	81.1	81.1	82.7	81.8	83.2	83.0	82.0	80.5	80.7	81.8	84.2	83.7
Laundries <sup>6</sup>	83.1	82.9	83.7	83.4	83.1	84.1	85.6	88.5	92.4	90.0	90.5	89.9	88.0	87.3
Dyeing and cleaning <sup>6</sup>	73.6	70.8	69.9	65.5	64.4	72.7	79.6	85.4	89.6	80.0	78.9	85.6	82.4	78.0

<sup>1</sup> 3-year average 1923-25=100—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures. See table 5 (p. 1591) of the December 1940 Monthly Labor Review for further revisions.

<sup>2</sup> 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5 and 6.

<sup>3</sup> Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.

<sup>4</sup> Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

<sup>5</sup> Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of this pamphlet.

<sup>6</sup> Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.

<sup>7</sup> Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.



# INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in October and November 1940 is made in table 5 for 13 metropolitan areas, each of which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas but having a population of 100,000 or over are not included. Footnotes to the table specify which cities are excluded. Data concerning them have been prepared in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 5, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more according to the 1930 Census of Population.

TABLE 5.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in October and November 1940, by Principal Metropolitan Areas

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments November 1940	Number on pay roll November 1940	Percentage change from October 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) November 1940	Percentage change from October 1940
New York <sup>1</sup>	13,646	766,628	+1.5	\$22,045,315	+0.9
Chicago <sup>2</sup>	4,404	507,733	+1.9	14,563,904	+1.6
Philadelphia <sup>3</sup>	2,485	270,239	+2.5	7,626,278	+1.9
Detroit	1,638	305,912	+2.6	14,049,928	-2.0
Los Angeles <sup>4</sup>	2,992	207,315	+4.3	6,189,913	+2.1
Cleveland	1,570	150,275	+2.4	4,627,719	+2.5
St. Louis	1,377	141,074	+1	3,543,137	-1.6
Baltimore	1,074	128,579	+2.6	3,553,323	+6.5
Boston <sup>5</sup>	2,928	198,832	-3	5,247,299	-3
Pittsburgh	1,360	228,502	+1.1	7,138,067	+5
San Francisco <sup>6</sup>	1,695	95,984	-1.5	2,969,998	-3.0
Buffalo	791	99,119	+3.2	2,968,289	+4.3
Milwaukee	990	115,792	+1.4	3,480,996	+2.1

<sup>1</sup> Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J., or Yonkers, N. Y.

<sup>2</sup> Does not include Gary, Ind.

<sup>3</sup> Does not include Camden, N. J.

<sup>4</sup> Does not include Long Beach, Calif.

<sup>5</sup> Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, or Somerville, Mass.

<sup>6</sup> Does not include Oakland, Calif.

## WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN AMERICAN INDUSTRIES

The following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending November 15, 1940, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to this Bureau.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

TABLE 6.—*Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments During Month Ending November 15, 1940*<sup>1</sup>

Group and industry	Establishments			Employees				Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having—	
	Total number reporting	Number reporting—		Total number covered	Number having—				
		In-creases	De-creases		In-creases	De-creases	In-creases	De-creases	
All manufacturing.....	33,706	265	3	6,376,836	91,256	1,116	5.5	8.3	
Iron and steel group.....	2,436	26	—	906,043	7,606	—	5.2	—	
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	337	4	—	493,900	1,365	—	5.9	—	
Stamped and enameled ware.....	221	3	—	41,081	1,332	—	4.1	—	
Tools (none).....	129	3	—	15,677	27	—	5.4	—	
Machinery group.....	3,771	60	—	901,572	11,011	—	6.2	—	
Electrical machinery.....	588	10	—	239,784	2,204	—	4.6	—	
Foundries and machine shops.....	2,272	35	—	303,740	6,416	—	6.9	—	
Machine tools.....	202	3	—	74,084	442	—	5.4	—	
Pumps.....	98	5	—	14,294	814	—	4.9	—	
Transportation group.....	739	11	—	711,376	9,682	—	4.5	—	
Automobiles.....	393	3	—	449,608	3,993	—	3.3	—	
Shipbuilding.....	143	3	—	100,130	2,302	—	5.2	—	
Nonferrous metals group.....	1,032	37	—	214,517	39,023	—	6.1	—	
Brass, bronze, and copper.....	330	23	—	79,877	33,835	—	5.0	—	
Smelting and refining.....	49	6	—	28,962	4,265	—	5.5	—	
Lumber group.....	2,443	33	—	313,195	6,917	—	6.0	—	
Furniture.....	715	6	—	103,221	439	—	7.4	—	
Sawmills.....	779	23	—	133,064	5,799	—	5.8	—	
Stone, clay, and glass group.....	1,526	9	—	191,467	1,438	—	10.4	—	
Glass.....	149	3	—	65,451	922	—	12.7	—	
Fabrics group.....	3,287	12	—	945,836	4,208	—	5.8	—	
Dyeing and finishing.....	223	4	—	54,893	2,132	—	7.0	—	
Woolen and worsted goods.....	446	3	—	154,776	795	—	4.3	—	
Wearing apparel group.....	2,935	3	—	308,545	210	—	5.2	—	
Leather group.....	919	3	—	208,991	365	—	8.2	—	
Food group.....	5,501	16	—	491,499	2,143	—	6.0	—	
Baking.....	1,063	3	—	81,835	169	—	6.8	—	
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	330	4	—	117,636	1,068	—	4.5	—	
Paper and printing group.....	3,835	25	—	358,308	3,377	—	6.0	—	
Paper boxes.....	667	3	—	46,548	441	—	4.2	—	
Paper and pulp.....	436	10	—	126,128	2,384	—	6.5	—	
Printing and publishing:									
Book and job.....	1,610	6	—	80,370	366	—	6.4	—	
Newspapers and periodicals.....	723	5	—	62,343	165	—	3.3	—	
Chemical group.....	1,953	14	—	297,235	2,824	—	5.2	—	
Chemicals.....	241	5	—	64,678	1,560	—	4.1	—	
All nonmanufacturing (except building construction).....	92,234	47	—	2,979,050	4,323	—	6.0	—	
Metalliferous mining.....	374	9	—	68,556	2,517	—	5.7	—	
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	1,092	4	—	37,279	254	—	3.8	—	
Wholesale trade.....	14,172	15	—	327,100	239	—	9.3	—	
Retail trade.....	53,467	10	—	1,076,800	215	—	9.4	—	

<sup>1</sup> Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included, where practicable in "all manufacturing," in "all nonmanufacturing," and in the various industry groups.

# Recent Publications of Labor Interest

FEBRUARY 1941

## Child Labor and Child Welfare

*Proceedings of White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, Washington, D. C., January 18-20, 1940, including general report adopted by the Conference.* Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, 1940. Various paging, charts. (Bureau publication No. 266.)

Among the subjects taken up in the general report are the goals of democracy, the child in the family, educational services in the community, protection against child labor, youth and their needs, conserving the health of children, and children under special disadvantages.

*America's children.* By Maxwell S. Stewart. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1940. 31 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 47.)

Based for the most part on Children in a Democracy, the general report adopted by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, January 1940, and on other data prepared for the conference.

*Child labor facts.* By Gertrude Folks Zimand. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1940. 38 pp., chart, illus. (Publication No. 381.)

Reviews extent of child labor, kinds of work being done by children, and Federal and State child-labor legislation.

*Children in a depression decade: A survey of the factors affecting children from 1930 to 1940, showing present status of child welfare.* Edited by James H. S. Bossard. (In Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Volume 212, Philadelphia, November 1940, pp. 1-234.)

The introductory articles by the Chief of the U. S. Children's Bureau and Homer Folks are followed by discussions on the changing mathematics of child welfare, the changing social and family backgrounds, general problems of child welfare, a decade of dealing with special groups, objectives for children in a democratic society, and whether or not we are doing too much for our children.

*A summary of State laws affecting employment of minors in factories and stores.* Washington, U. S. Children's Bureau, September 1940. 7 pp.; processed.

## Conciliation and Arbitration

*Negotiation and arbitration—a course outline.* By Henry P. Melnikow. Berkeley, Calif., Pacific Coast School for Workers, 1940. 11 pp.; mimeographed. (P. C. S. W. publication No. 37.)

*Report of Anthracite Board of Conciliation.* Hazelton, Pa., [1940]. 526 pp. (Vol. XXV.)

Individual grievances are reported and the disposition of each case is shown.

*Labor arbitration in Chile.* By Heinz Schwenk. (In Arbitration Journal, New York, October 1940, pp. 148-151.)

EDITOR'S NOTE: The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.



### Consumer Problems

*The challenge of the consumer movement.* By Colston E. Warne. (In *Social Action*, New York, December 15, 1940, pp. 5-30.)

Defines the consumer movement, describes the conditions which gave rise to it, shows how it has developed, what it has accomplished, and how the reader can become a part of it.

*Consumer relations and national defense.* Digests of addresses and discussion at regional conferences at Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Syracuse, October 7, 11, and 15, 1940. Washington, D. C., Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1940. 15 pp.; mimeographed.

Deals mainly with the problems of retail dealers in their relations with the consuming public, price increases arising out of war conditions, and dealers' attitudes toward the "consumer movement."

*Directory of governmental consumer services and agencies.* Prepared by Leland J. Gordon for Office of Consumer Adviser, Advisory Commission to Council of National Defense. Washington, [1940?]. 29 pp.; mimeographed.

Gives a general discussion of the kinds of consumer services of Federal, State, and municipal governments; also a brief description of each governmental agency which performs some consumer service.

*Studies in consumer instalment financing: 1, Personal finance companies and their credit practices; 2, Sales finance companies and their credit practices; 3, Commercial banks and consumer instalment credit; 4, Industrial banking companies and their credit practices; 5, Government agencies of consumer instalment credit; 6, The pattern of consumer debt, 1935-36; 7, The volume of consumer instalment credit, 1929-38.* New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1940. 7 vols.; various paging.

### Cost and Standards of Living

*Family income and expenditures, Middle Atlantic, North Central, and New England Regions: Part 1, Family income.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Home Economics, 1940. 258 pp., charts. (Consumer purchases study, farm series; Department of Agriculture miscellaneous publication No. 383.)

*A memorandum on research in income and levels of living in the South.* By William B. Sewell. Stillwater, Okla., 1940. 30 pp. (Publication No. 3 of Social Science Research Council of Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.)

Notes on sources of information and on needed research in this field.

*Consumo de alimentos en la zona urbana de Puerto Rico.* By S. Díaz Pacheco. Rio Piedras, P. R., Estación Experimental Agrícola, April 1940. 29 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 52.)

Results of a study of food consumption in 22 cities and towns of Puerto Rico in June 1938, based on 1,901 family schedules. Comparative data are included from a similar investigation made in the city of San Juan as of June 1937. The report shows the relation of food consumption to family income and to education of the housewife, and also regional consumption differences.

A brief summary in English is provided.

*Investigación sobre el costo de la vida en Caracas, los presupuestos familiares, 1939.* Caracas, Ministerio de Fomento, Dirección General de Estadística, 1940. 79 pp.

Official report of a family-budget study made in Caracas, Venezuela, in 1939, based on 204 families in January and 149 families in February, largely families of salaried employees.

### Employment and Unemployment

*Family unemployment: An analysis of unemployment in terms of family units.* By Don. D. Humphrey. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1940. xvi, 144 pp., charts.

The study deals with the relation between unemployment in terms of individual workers and unemployment in terms of family units. It helps to explain the variations in relief needs of the various communities and States, as there are wide differences in the percentages of multiworker families in different localities. In communities where multiworker families are numerous, the relation of changes in unemployment to changes in relief needs was found to be less direct and less immediate than in communities where one-worker families predominate.

*The unemployed worker: A study of the task of making a living without a job.* By E. Wight Bakke. New Haven, Yale University Press (for Institute of Human Relations), 1940. xix, 465 pp.

This volume and its companion, "Citizens Without Work," present the results of a series of studies which have been carried on at the Institute of Human Relations since 1932. The research was undertaken for the purpose of discovering the readjustment problems faced by unemployed American workers and their families and the resources which they brought with them to their task. These studies are aimed at discovering the fundamental principles which define the interaction of individuals and society, and developing a science of human relations whose findings will be relevant not only in the particular situation but wherever human beings must adjust themselves to the physical and cultural environment and to each other.

*Citizens without work: A study of the effects of unemployment upon the workers' social relations and practices.* By E. Wight Bakke. New Haven, Yale University Press (for Institute of Human Relations), 1940. xiv, 311 pp.

*Reducing fluctuations in employment.* By F. Beatrice Brower. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1940. 60 pp., charts. (Studies in personnel policy No. 27.)

The study covers experience in 31 industries in reducing employment fluctuations. Most of the report is devoted to the presentation of actual case studies of the extent to which individual companies have succeeded in promoting stability of employment. The report covers 203 companies employing approximately 1,200,000 persons.

*The 45-day job hunt campaign of the National Youth Administration for Iowa, in review, April 15-June 1, 1940.* Des Moines, National Youth Administration for Iowa, 1940. Various paging; mimeographed.

Data from this report were published in an article on job campaigns for unemployed youth in the November 1940 Monthly Labor Review (p. 1128).

*Mobilizing jobs: Report on Pennsylvania job mobilization program.* [Philadelphia, Curtis Publishing Co.?], 1940. 19 pp., charts.

Summary of activities of Pennsylvania Job Mobilization Committee.

*A man for the job.* (In Economic Review, Chamber of Commerce of Puerto Rico, Vol. 5, No. 4, San Juan, 1940, pp. 71-78, 104-106.)

Although unemployment and overpopulation are the major economic and social problems in Puerto Rico, there is a chronic shortage of skilled labor. Recently, the Insular Department of Education, in cooperation with the Federal Government, set up the Insular Board for Vocational Education, whose purpose is to develop a supply of skilled labor. The article outlines the measures taken to provide the necessary training.

*Six ways to get a job.* By Paul W. Boynton. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1940. 147 pp.

According to the author, the principal reason why so many people fail to get jobs is they do not know how to market their services. The volume gives constructive counsel on various measures to be taken to secure employment.

*Some correlates of certain attitudes of the unemployed.* By Anthony Carter Tucker. New York, Archives of Psychology (Columbia University), 1940. 72 pp. (No. 245.)

### Employment Services

*Proceedings of twenty-eighth annual convention of International Association of Public Employment Services, Kansas City, Mo., May 14-17, 1940.* Washington, [Charles L. Hodge, general secretary, Railroad Retirement Board], 1940. 160 pp.

Junior counseling and placement and occupational counseling techniques were among the major topics discussed.

*The job clinic as a placement aid.* By D. Palmer Patterson. (In Employment Security Review, U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, November 1940, pp. 14, 15.)

Account of a clinic connected with the Arkansas State Employment Service.

*Employment department organization and procedure.* New York, National Retail Dry Goods Association, 1939. 40 pp.

The study covered the operation of the employment departments in 53 representative stores. The report shows existing practice and indicates the direction which future developments must take. Employment forms are described and reproduced.

### Health and Industrial Hygiene

*The National Health Survey: Receipt of medical services in different urban population groups.* By Rollo H. Britten. (In Public Health Reports, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, November 29, 1940, pp. 2199-2224.)

The study is based on a house-to-house canvass of 703,092 urban families in 18 States and 36,801 families in rural areas. It shows that a large proportion of the urban families had incomes that left no margin or only a small margin for meeting the costs of medical care; that illness rates were highest in the poorest families and such families received the least medical care; and that persons residing in smaller cities were at a particular disadvantage as compared with those in larger cities, especially with respect to hospitalization.

*First annual meeting of American Conference on Industrial Health, November 14, 1940, Chicago.* (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, Ill., December 1940, pp. 588-629.)

The conference was sponsored by the American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons. Industrial health and health programs for maintaining health in industry are discussed from various viewpoints—employer, employee, physician, industrial hygienist, labor, industrial relations, safety, etc.—in the papers reproduced in this issue of Industrial Medicine.

*Report of Division of Occupational Hygiene, Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, for year ending November 30, 1939.* Boston, 1940. 28 pp., diagrams.

The report gives the number of cases of occupational diseases reported for the year and a brief summary of a number of studies of occupational hazards.

*Studies on lead hazards in certain phases of printing: I, Actual lead exposures as measured by amount of lead in printing atmospheres,* by Harold W. Ruf; *II, Actual lead absorption as measured by physical examinations, blood and urine studies,* by Elston L. Belknap. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, December 1940, pp. 445-471; illus.)

This study was carried out in 14 printing plants in Milwaukee. The study, with few exceptions, failed to reveal an atmospheric lead hazard, and physical examination of 40 workers showed that, while lead absorption to a moderate degree did occur, there was no evidence of lead intoxication.

*Fifth report of Departmental Committee on Lighting in Factories, Ministry of Labor and National Service, Great Britain.* London, 1940. 14 pp.

Contains recommendations as to standards of lighting in factories, with special reference to conditions imposed by the war.

*Ventilation of factories.* London, Home Office, 1940. 50 pp., diagrams, illus. 4th ed. (Welfare pamphlet No. 5.)

### Housing

*Construction, housing, and real property—a survey of available basic statistical data.* By Jean H. Williams. Washington, U. S. Central Statistical Board, 1940. 169 pp.

Designed to provide background information and to serve as a basis for further development of statistical work in this field. References are annotated.

*Toward more housing.* By Peter A. Stone and R. Harold Denton. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1940. xxi, 223 pp., charts. (Temporary National Economic Committee, United States Congress, Investigation of concentration of economic power, Monograph No. 8.)

The first part of this study deals with the factors that cause high financing costs on houses and the second, with the factors in raising capital outlays. Both sections emphasize the need for technical housing research, standardization of materials, simplification of building codes, and enforcement of antitrust legislation.



*Annual report of Massachusetts State Board of Housing, for year ending November 30, 1939.* Boston, 1940. 46 pp., maps, plans. (Public doc. No. 154.) Includes reports of the various city housing authorities.

*Public housing law and companion acts: Housing amendment to Constitution of State of New York (Article XVIII).* Albany, New York State Division of Housing, 1940. 93 pp.

*Public housing tour guide.* New York, National Public Housing Conference, 122 E. 22d St., 1940. 50 pp.; mimeographed.

Gives important facts concerning housing projects and directions for reaching them. Information is shown by States and cities.

*Resolución práctica del problema de la habitación obrera en la República Mexicana, desde los puntos de vista financiero y legal.* By Carlos Díaz Garduño. (In *Revista del Trabajo*, Departamento Federal del Trabajo, México, D. F., September 1940, pp. 63-72.)

Historical account of Mexican legislation relating to the construction of workers' houses in Mexico by employers, an examination of the financial involvement in carrying out these provisions, and a suggested plan for construction of workers' houses by workers and employers jointly, the workers eventually to own the houses they help to erect.

### *Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation*

*Proceedings of All-Ohio Safety Congress held under auspices of Industrial Commission of Ohio, Columbus, April 16-18, 1940.* Columbus, Industrial Commission, 1940. 632 pp.

The papers presented include the following: Industrial dermatoses as related to the oil industry; Dust control in foundries; Toxic materials and their uses in the dry-cleaning industry; The cost of an industrial safety program; Control of occupational-disease hazards.

*Coal-mine explosions and coal- and metal-mine fires in United States during fiscal year ended June 30, 1940.* By D. Harrington and W. J. Fene. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1940. 25 pp., chart; mimeographed. (Information circular 7136.)

During the fiscal year 1939-40, there were 18 coal-mine explosions, resulting in 206 deaths, as compared with 14 minor explosions and 16 deaths in the previous fiscal year. Three of the explosions were major disasters causing 191 deaths. Six of the explosions were caused by electricity, 5 by open lights or smoking, and 5 by explosives.

*How mine workers can help to prevent mine explosions.* By D. Harrington. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1940. 5 pp.; mimeographed. (Information circular 7138.)

*Report on prevention of accidents on combing machines in cotton spinning trade.* London, Home Office, 1940. 27 pp. diagrams.

The report describes safety devices for use in different types of combing machines.

*Report for 1939 on operations under Factory and Workshop Acts, Eire, 1901-20.* Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1940. 13 pp.

Includes data on industrial accidents in 1939, by cause, age and sex of the injured, and by industry.

*Workmen's compensation tables (3% interest).* New York, State Department of Labor, 1940. 55 pp. (Special bull. No. 207.)

The tables in this bulletin supplement those published in New York Department of Labor special bulletin No. 190 (1937), based on a 3½ percent interest rate. The New York workmen's compensation law provides for actuarial computations at a rate of 3½ percent per annum for claims in connection with accidents that occurred up to and including June 30, 1939, and at 3 percent per annum for claims arising out of accidents occurring subsequent to that date.

### Industrial Relations

*Collaboration between public authorities and organizations of workers and employers.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 1180, reprint from September 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*A miner views industrial relations.* By E. F. Rowe. (In *Personnel Journal*, New York, December 1940, pp. 209-215.)

The author of this article has spent the greater part of the last two decades in copper mines as an ordinary miner, which is his present occupation.

*Union agreements in aircraft manufacturing.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 1163, reprint from August 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Union agreements in shipbuilding.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 1179, reprint from September 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*The jurisdiction of the Labor Court in Sweden.* By James J. Robbins. (In *Illinois Law Review*, Chicago, Ill., December 1940, pp. 396-408.)

### Labor Legislation

*Handbook of Federal labor legislation: Labor standards on Government contract work and work financed by the United States.* Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1940. 86 pp. (Bull. No. 39, Part 1.)

*Hours-of-labor legislation in the United States.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1176, reprint from September 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*The law governing labor disputes and collective bargaining.* By Ludwig Teller. New York, Baker, Voorhis & Co., Inc., 1940. 3 vols.

This work analyzes statutory developments in the field of labor relations, and discusses the historical background of the modern labor movement. It also covers in considerable detail the most important court decisions concerning labor law, particularly in reference to strikes, picketing, and collective bargaining. State and Federal legislation, as well as pertinent court decisions, concerning the mediation and arbitration of labor disputes is also included. Most of this material is contained in the first two volumes, the third volume consisting mainly of indexes and of sample forms to be used in labor litigation.

*Labor decisions of the Supreme Court, 1939-40.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1165, reprint from August 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

*Measurements of effectiveness of National Labor Relations Act.* By John V. Spielmans. (In *American Economic Review*, Evanston, Ill., December 1940, pp. 803-813; diagrams.)

*Peaceful picketing guaranteed by due process clause of 14th amendment [to the United States Constitution].* By Eugene T. Kinder. (In *Michigan Law Review*, Ann Arbor, Mich., November 1940, pp. 110-120.)

Discussion of the legality of peaceful picketing viewed in the light of the U. S. Supreme Court's decision declaring unconstitutional an Alabama antipicketing law and a similar ordinance of Shasta County, Calif. These decisions were summarized in the June 1940 Monthly Labor Review (p. 1436).

*Application of labor legislation to fruit and vegetable canning and preserving industries.* Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1940. 162 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 176.)

### Labor Organizations and Their Activities

*The United Automobile Workers of America.* By R. J. Thomas. (In *Labor Information Bulletin*, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, December 1940, pp. 1-4; chart, illus.)

*The American miners' association: A record of the origin of coal miners' unions in the United States.* By Edward A. Wieck. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1940. 330 pp., bibliography.

*Thirty-ninth annual directory of labor organizations in Massachusetts, 1940 (with statistics of membership, 1936-40).* Boston, Department of Labor and Industries, 1940. 92 pp. (Labor Bull. No. 182.)

*The organization of labor in Philadelphia, 1850-70.* By Edgar Barclay Cale. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1940. 126 pp., bibliography.

*Forty-sixth annual report of national executive of Irish Trade Union Congress, 1939-40; Proceedings of forty-sixth annual meeting, July 1940.* Dublin, 1940. 158 pp.

### Migration and the Migrants

*Interstate migration.* Hearings before select committee to investigate interstate migration of destitute citizens, House of Representatives, Seventy-sixth Congress, third session, pursuant to H. Res. 62 and H. Res. 491. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1940.

*Our shifting populations.* By Mark A. Dawber. New York, Home Missions Council and Council of Women for Home Missions, 247 Fourth Ave., [1940]. 68 pp. (Frontiers of American life, No. 2.)

A series of radio talks on different problems connected with the movements of migratory workers.

*Origins and problems of Texas migratory farm labor.* Austin, Texas, Unemployment Compensation Commission, Employment Service, 1940. 93 pp.; mimeographed.

The report deals with farm-labor problems in Texas resulting from the influx of Mexican labor at different periods, the increasing stringency of immigration restrictions, and the unorganized labor market prior to 1935. Since that period the State Employment Service has attempted to stabilize intrastate migratory labor in various ways, but the interstate problems are said to be so serious as to require either new legislation or strict enforcement of the existing legislation.

*From many lands.* By Louis Adamie. New York and London, Harper & Brothers, 1940. 350 pp., illus.

Intimate and vivid histories of immigrants, based on actual facts, the names and places being disguised to prevent identification.

### Occupations and Occupational Adjustment

*Classified index of occupations.* By Alba M. Edwards. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1940. 199 pp.

*Matching youth and jobs: A study of occupational adjustment.* By Howard M. Bell. Washington, American Council on Education, 1940. 277 pp.; charts, illus.

The great majority of the approximately 1,750,000 boys and girls in the United States who offer their services each year as beginning workers have very little information concerning themselves as workers or in regard to the workaday world. The volume listed above emphasizes the need for such guidance and counseling as well as for placement services for youth.

*Occupational adjustment and the school.* By Edward Landy and others. (In Bulletin of National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, November 1940, pp. 1-154; illus.)

Based on the findings of the report, the authors recommend that programs designed to aid secondary-school students to develop intelligent action in connection with occupational situations should include a careful study of the different occupations available to these young people. An analysis of the requirements, advantages, and disadvantages of these occupations should be made. Youth should then be helped and stimulated in their efforts to evaluate their individual interests, abilities, and aptitudes in terms of the requirements of job openings.

*Occupational trends in California with implications for vocational education—VII, Trends in counties and cities.* Sacramento, California State Department of Education, 1940. 161 pp., maps, bibliography. (Bulletin, Vol. IX, No. 3.)

The 6 preceding bulletins in this series dealt, respectively, with California's population, basic economic resources, the construction industry, distributive occupations, manufacturing, and personal, business, and repair services.



*Business as a career.* New York, New York University, School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance, 1940. 58 pp., illus.

Twenty-one different kinds of business careers are briefly described in the pamphlet, and there is a business chart showing typical positions in connection with 14 basic business activities.

*An annotated bibliography of books and pamphlets on certain mechanical and allied trades.* Quoddy Village, Maine, U. S. National Youth Administration, Quoddy Regional Project, Library, March 1940. 137 pp.; mimeographed.

*Some suggestions concerning choice of a vocation for Negro youth.* Indianapolis, National Youth Administration of Indiana, [1940?]. 9 pp.; mimeographed. Suggests a wider vocational training program for Negro youth.

### Old-Age Assistance

*The aging population and programs of security.* By Ewan Clague. (In Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, New York, October 1940, pp. 345-358.)

*Characteristics of State plans for old-age assistance (revised July 1, 1940).* Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, Bureau of Public Assistance, 1940. 35 pp.

*Nineteenth annual report of Board of Actuaries, Civil Service Retirement and Disability Fund, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1939.* Washington, 1940. 21 pp. (Senate Doc. No. 212, 76th Cong., 3d sess.)

*Trends in industrial pensions.* By Murray Webb Latimer and Karl Tufel. New York, Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1940. 87 pp. (Monograph No. 5.)

The report deals with developments affecting pension plans since an earlier study published in 1933. The objectives of the investigation were to determine whether or not the characteristics and trends found to exist at the time of the previous study had persisted, and, if not, the direction of any new tendencies; to obtain data on the growth or decline and the present extent of the voluntary pension movement; and to suggest possible ways of adapting private pension systems to governmental old-age-insurance legislation and the adjustments that have been effected.

### Personnel and Industrial Management

*Personnel administration and personnel training—a selected list of references.* Compiled by Mildred Benton and H. L. Buckardt. Washington, U. S. Soil Conservation Service, 1940. 59 pp.; mimeographed. (Bibliography No. 2.)

*A survey of personnel practices in the Philadelphia area, 1940.* Prepared for Philadelphia Chapter, National Office Management Association. Philadelphia, Peirce School of Business Administration, 1940. 23 pp.

The study covered eight major features of personnel practice affecting office employees—namely, employment, education and training, working hours, compensation, insurance, welfare, vacations, and free-time allowances, of 91 companies in the Philadelphia area.

*Industrial management.* By Richard H. Lansburgh and William R. Spriegel. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1940. 666 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. 3d ed.

The purpose of the authors was to present the problems, the ideals, and the methods of successful industrial management in both a broad and a specific way. Two of the eight parts of the volume are devoted, respectively, to personnel relations and wage-payment (methods, etc.).

*Merit rating of supervisors, foremen, and department heads.* By Asa S. Knowles. Boston, Mass., Northeastern University, 1940. 19 pp. (Bull. No. 4.)

### Prices and Price Control

*Price behavior and business policy.* By Saul Nelson and Walter G. Keim. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1940. xxv, 419 pp., charts. (Temporary National Economic Committee, United States Congress, Investigation of concentration of economic power, Monograph No. 1.)

*Price control: 1941.* (In *Fortune*, New York, January 1941, pp. 65-67, et seq., chart.)

This article appraises recent tentative moves which have been made by the United States Government to avoid some of the price distortions that occurred during the period of the World War, and indicates future alternatives.

*Wartime price control* By Jules Backman. New York, New York University School of Law, 1940. 50 pp. (Contemporary law pamphlets, series 4, No. 5.)

Consideration is given to the differences between war-time and peace-time price control and to the British system of control at present and experience in the last war. A section deals with a program in the event the United States becomes a belligerent.

*Wholesale prices of fats and oils in the United States—index numbers, 1910-39.* By Robert M. Walsh. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1940. 27 pp., charts. (Technical bull. No. 737.)

*Index numbers of wholesale prices of lumber, January 1935—September 1940.* Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 46 pp.; mimeographed.

### Social Security

*Fourth annual meeting of Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies, Washington, D. C., October 1-4, 1940.* Washington, [Kathryn Fenn, executive secretary], 1940. Various paging; processed.

Contains the papers read at the meeting, remarks of the various discussion groups, and resolutions adopted.

*Proceedings of National Conference of Social Work, selected papers, sixty-seventh annual conference, Grand Rapids, Michigan, May 26-June 1, 1940.* New York, Columbia University Press, 1940. 736 pp.

The papers are classified under social objectives in a time of world crisis, areas of social-work concern, and social-work practice. Specific topics discussed include youth, migrants, health and medical care, and housing.

*Social work yearbook, 1941: A description of organized activities in social work and in related fields.* Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1941. 793 pp.

The first part of the volume contains an authoritative record of organized activities, and the second part, a directory of 1,023 National and State agencies in social work and related fields.

*Report on the almshouses in Maryland.* Prepared by Maryland State Department of Public Welfare. Baltimore, Maryland Legislative Council, 1940. Various paging; mimeographed.

Report of study made under authority of resolution passed by Maryland Senate, March 25, 1939. The study disclosed that there had been no marked change in the number of persons in the almshouses in the last 10 years, and that slightly more than half of the residents had been admitted during the past three years. "It would appear, therefore, that the almshouse is by no means a 'dying' institution in the sense that persons no longer apply for the care which it provides." Analysis of the almshouse population revealed that only 96 out of 510 inmates could be placed in care of relatives or in boarding homes, and 95 others needed mental hospital care. Thus, 319 (half of whom were bedridden) remained who needed institutional care. The investigators recommend the provision of hospitals for care of chronic cases, situated near good general hospitals, in order to take care of those patients who develop acute conditions.

*Invalid and old-age pensions in Australia, 12 months ended June 30, 1940.* Canberra, [Pensions Department], 1940. 11 pp.

Statistical statement of operations under Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act.

### Unemployment Compensation

*Comparison of State unemployment compensation laws as of October 1, 1940.* Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, Bureau of Employment Security, 1940. 142 pp. (Employment security memorandum No. 8.)

The principal provisions of the State unemployment compensation laws were summarized in an article in the November 1940 *Monthly Labor Review* (p. 1094), which was reprinted in Bureau of Labor Statistics Serial No. R. 1213.

*The emergence of unemployment compensation.* By Harry Malisoff. New York, Academy of Political Science, 1940. 85 pp. (Reprinted from Political Science Quarterly, June, September, December 1939, June 1940.)

The author reviews the steps by which unemployment compensation laws have been introduced in the United States, and discusses the development of a theory of compensation.

*Unemployment compensation.* By Bryant Putney. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1940. 18 pp. (Vol. 2, 1940, No. 20.)

Review of the unemployment compensation systems in the different States, with special emphasis on the size of the reserves which have been built up and a discussion of proposals for revision of the insurance system.

### Wartime Labor Conditions

*Economic organization for total war with special reference to the workers.* By E. F. Penrose. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, Canada, October-November 1940, pp. 175-213.)

*Labor in wartime.* By John Steuben. New York, International Publishers, 1940. 159 pp.

Outline of the labor situation in the war of 1914-18 as it bears on conditions at the present time.

*Military service of employees.* New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., October 1940. 20 pp. (Research memorandum No. 6.)

The bulletin gives the texts of 23 representative companies' statements of policy regarding the status of employees called into military service. The subjects covered include the employee's restoration to his former position upon completion of military training, supplementary allowances given by the company, insurance protection, retention of seniority rights, and methods of filling the vacancies due to military training.

*The compensation of war victims—medical aid, compensation, and war pensions.* Geneva, International Labor Office, 1940. 91 pp. (Studies and reports, series E, No. 6.)

The study describes the essential features of compensation at the beginning of the present war, and the legal basis of the right of compensation, the conditions under which this right comes into play, and the benefits guaranteed. Four monographs giving the measures in force during the early months of 1940 to regulate compensation for war victims in France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy, are included.

### General Reports

*Fortieth annual report of Governor of Puerto Rico, [for fiscal year ending June 30, 1940].* San Juan, 1940. 170 pp., maps, charts.

The subjects covered in the report include education, health conditions, labor conditions, and the work in Puerto Rico of various Federal agencies, among them the Housing Administration, National Youth Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, and Work Projects Administration.

*Report of Department of Labor of Canada for fiscal year ending March 31, 1940.* Ottawa, 1940. 114 pp.

Reviews activities of the department in connection with its administration of the Labor Department Act, Conciliation and Labor Act, Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, Government Annuities Act, Employment Offices Coordination Act, Technical Education Act, Combines Investigation Act, Unemployment and Agricultural Assistance Act, and Youth Training Act.

This executive agency also administered the Canadian Government's Fair Wages Policy as provided in Orders in Council passed in 1922, 1924, and 1934, and in the Fair Wages and Hours of Labor Act of 1935, and it continued its work with reference to the Dominion's relations with the International Labor Organization.

*Comercio interior y comunicaciones, año 1938 [Chile].* Santiago, Dirección General de Estadística, 1940. 173 pp.

Includes retail prices of food, clothing, fuel and light, etc., and cost-of-living indexes, for 9 Chilean cities in 1938; and shows the number of salaried and wage-earning railway employees in 1938, by type of employment and by railway.



*Finanzas, bancos, y cajas sociales, año 1939 [Chile].* Santiago, Dirección General de Estadística, 1940. 142 pp.

The section of this report devoted to social welfare in Chile contains statistics of social insurance, employment, employment service, wages, industrial accidents, industrial disputes, labor organizations, consumers' cooperatives, and activities of the Low-Cost Housing Fund.

*Minería e industria, año 1938 [Chile].* Santiago, Dirección General de Estadística, 1940. 96 pp.

Includes statistics of employment, wages, industrial accidents, and total social-insurance contributions of employers and employees, in copper, saltpeter, and coal mining; and of employment and wages in a number of other industries.

*Social legislation and activity in Finland.* By Iisakki Laati. Helsinki, Oy Suomen Kirja, 1939. 142 pp., illus.

Contains information on organizations of employers and workers, labor legislation, employment and unemployment, employment service, labor protection, social insurance, welfare work, and housing.

*Industrial South Wales—a social and political survey.* By Philip Massey. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1940. 286 pp., maps.

Separate chapters are devoted to important industries, such as coal mining, iron and steel, and shipping.